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ABSTRACT

The Center for English Language Research and Teaching (CELRT) at the American University of Beirut, with the cooperation of the Ford Foundation, held a conference with the purpose of attracting attention to the various English language training needs and opportunities outside of the normal system of school instruction. David Nize argues in his paper, "The Economics of English," that if the resources for teaching English in the Arab world were properly utilized, there would be an enormous saving in costs to private companies and governments. Peter Strevens and Matthew Macmillan show in their papers what has been achieved so far in the teaching of English for special purposes. The papers by Charles Johnson, Faze Larudee, Robert Sullivan and Michael Dobbyn present some case studies of actual programs which have provided instruction in English for special purposes. The concluding papers by Richard Yorkey and Neil Bratton survey the progress of English language teaching in the Arab world and the prospects for change; they also make concrete suggestions about how the specialists and the consumers can cooperate to their mutual benefit. Appendix I outlines the conference program and Appendix II gives a list of the participants and observers. (CFM)

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Conference On

ADULT ENGLISH FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Beirut, May 3 - 6, 1971

Sponsored by
The Ford Foundation

Director Neil J.O. Bratton
Coordinator Nicholas Read-Collins

PREFACE

NEIL J.Q. BRATTON

The Center for English Language Research and Teaching (CELRT) at the American University of Beirut has been looking for ways in which it might continue to extend its services beyond the needs of the University itself. In a sense it has been doing this through the training of specialists in the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) but this is no more than the educational contribution of any academic department and in itself does not justify the existence of a Center. What is desired is a more direct contribution to and participation in programs that are attempting to meet the needs of the region.

One obvious area of need is the public school system, where English language training falls far short of its goals. But whereas there are aspects of this broad undertaking to which the Center can make a valuable contribution, the problem is in large part a quantitative one and primary responsibility for its solution rests with the several ministries of education and private school administrators. Without denying a role for CELRT in this field, it is also appropriate for the Center to look for opportunities outside of the realm of the school system and beyond the responsibilities of government. Indeed, it is through helping to meet the specialized needs of particular government agencies and the private sector--including the universities--that the Center might have its most effective and immediate impact.

It is with the thought of attracting attention to the various English language training needs and opportunities outside of the normal system of school instruction that CELRT, with the cooperation of the Ford Foundation, convened a conference in May 1971. This conference gave the potential users,or "consumers," of specialized programs an opportunity to describe their needs and equally gave CELRT, as well as comparable centers in the Arab World, the opportunity to consider and suggest ways in which they might help to meet them. Represented among the "consumers" were private sector employers such as banks, airlines and oil companies, firms that deal in international trade, government agencies whose personnel require a knowledge of English to perform their duties, universities which teach in English and a variety of institutions that for one reason or another require concentrated training over a short period of time. Included as well were institutions which in turn are training centers but need help in the way of curriculum design, materials and teachers.

It is hoped that out of the discussions at this conference a clearer picture emerged of both the means and opportunities for future cooperation and assistance.

Since the conference in May 1971, CELRT has responded to several requests for assistance from various Ministries of Education:

1) It has redesigned the syllabi for the Elementary and Baccalaureate English programs and the TEFL component of the new Teaching Baccalaureate in Lebanon.
2) It is engaged in a six-month survey and evaluation of English teaching in Afghanistan.
3) It has organized, for this summer, an eight-week course for thirty Intermediate level English teachers from Kuwait.
4) It is sending a consultant to a women's college in Tehran to plan in-service Teacher Training seminars there next year.

The response from the private sector has, rather unexpectedly, been slower--perhaps because the novelty of the idea of a link with universities needs to wear off; perhaps because the training officers need more time to convert their higher management to the idea; but not, I think, because they see no value in the suggestions made at the conference. As a result of the requests received so far, CELRT has:

1) Continued to provide English teachers for ARAMCO.
2) Organized an eight-week intensive English course for seven employees of AMINOIL, Kuwait, to be held this summer.
3) Set up an Extension English Unit at AUB to teach the following courses--University Level English, Business Correspondence, Banking English, Conversational English,

Faster Reading, English for Nurses and Beginning English for Adults. To these may be added two special courses for Middle East Airlines and a projected Teacher Training certificate course.

Implicit in the concept underlying the conference was the notion that the universities of the Arab world which have English departments should concern themselves with the wider implications of English teaching; specifically, with its use by adults outside the academic system, who need English to perform jobs which contribute to the development of the country (hence the name Adult English for National Development). At present, very few institutions have this capability: apart from CELRT, the English Language Institute and the Department of Public Service at the American University in Cairo, the Bourguiba Institute, Tunis, and the Extension services of the Beirut College for Women come to mind. However, it is hoped that this conference provided some stimulus to other institutions to follow suit because, for better or worse, the expertise and capability to help the consumers with their English programs lies in the universities.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface i

Table of Contents ii

Exploring the Needs 2

- The Economics of English - David Mize 3

The Specialist's Viewpoint 24

- English for Special Purposes - Peter Strevens 25
- Recent Research for Special English Courses - Matthew Macmillan 41

Surveying Some Solutions 54

- Presentation to Beirut Conference on Adult English for National Development - Charles Johnson 55
- Planning a TEFL Program: A Case Study - Faze Larudee 67
- A Challenging Project - Robert Sullivan 81
- Evaluating a TEFL Program - Michael Dobbyn 91

Prospects and Proposals 120

- English Teaching in the Middle East: Prospects for Change - Richard Yorkey 121
- What Services Can Specialists Offer Consumers - Neil Bratton 135

Appendix I - Conference Program 149

Appendix II - List of Participants and Observers 152

CONFERENCE ON

ADULT ENGLISH FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

EXPLORING THE NEEDS

THE CONSUMER'S VIEWPOINT

Mr. David Mize works for the American Friends of the Middle East and has had a great deal of experience in the Arab World advising governments on which institutions in the United States to send their people to for further study. He has first hand knowledge of the costs involved when a student or employee has to study English in the States before he is accepted into a training program or university. His paper argues cogently that, if the resources for teaching English in the Arab World were properly exploited, there would be an enormous saving in costs to private companies and governments.

Mr. John Mace's interesting talk is, unfortunately, not included among these conference papers. He is Personnel Officer for the Shell Company Qatar and is currently in charge of Development and Training. As a former language teacher, he is acutely aware of the deficiency of most academic English teaching programs in meeting the requirements of job English. His presentation was a challenge to the TEFL profession to change their methods and materials and to take into consideration time and cost effectiveness when teaching English to employees who need functional English in order to carry out specific jobs.

THE ECONOMICS OF ENGLISH

DAVID MIZE
AMERICAN FRIENDS OF THE MIDDLE EAST

English Language Learning, Teaching English as a Foreign Language, Teaching English as a Second Language, English for Arabs and a number of other topics have served as the basis for discussions and conferences between individuals, private and public organizations, British, American and Arab educators and language teachers, institutions, foundations and governments for the past two decades, and possibly somewhat longer. Attending this particular conference in Beirut are a number of scholars, professors, teachers, inspectors, administrators and other experts--either as producers or consumers--some of whom have been personally involved in English teaching in the Middle East, including the Maghreb, for more than a quarter of a century.

As far as I know, most of these past conferences, seminars and workshops have addressed themselves primarily to linguistic or pedagogical questions relating chiefly, if not exclusively, to problems encountered in teaching English to learners whose native language is Arabic. A very wide area within the general limitations of language learning/teaching has been covered or at least examined: spoken English to adults; written work for beginning students; audio-visual aids for teachers; intensive English for military students, etc. This breadth of attention suggests, and quite rightly so, that the production and dissemination of English language skills with all it entails--materials production, teacher training, teacher education and, finally, actual language teaching--is given considerable importance in the Arab world and the Middle East in general. And this academic work has indeed an important economic dimension.

It is not my intention to try to produce hard figures on how much is spent in the Middle East on English language learning each year, and even less to look at this in terms of a cost benefit analysis, although such an investigation might be very worthwhile. Rather, it is hoped that this brief paper will stimulate some thinking about the economics of English teaching and may result in some substantial savings for the consumer.

There are a number of ways to approach the economics of English teaching in the Middle East, some of which will be touched on here. Firstly, there is the crucial question of how one should look at language learning as far as economic rationale is concerned. Language learning is part of overall education, which, particularly in the last decade, has been considered by a number of writers as an investment in human resources.[1] So if one accepts this thesis that expenditure on education is investment in human resources, one must include within this expenditure language learning. If, however, we are to gain some perspective into the problem, we might begin by making a number of distinctions. The first of these is between language teaching programs in preparatory and secondary schools, language teaching at the university level and language teaching outside the formal educational system.

English is a required subject in preparatory and secondary schools in most Arab countries, i.e., in those programs that are designed to lead into university studies; and it is optional at the secondary level in all countries where it is not demanded. Moreover, in those post-primary schools offering terminal education--trade schools, teacher training institutes, etc.--English is often required. Within the various national educational systems that are found in the Middle East there is considerable latitude concerning requirements, time devoted to English, levels of achievement demanded and the relative importance of English within the curriculum. And of course there are great differences in ability and industriousness of teachers and students. But, in general, evidence suggests that, with the possible exception of those students who have studied in schools in which English is the language of instruction, very few secondary graduates have obtained within their school system a level of proficiency that permits them to continue their studies or training in a learning situation in which English is the medium of instruction.

Those students who leave the formal educational system before completing secondary school, and this is more than half of all students entering preparatory school, and subsequently find themselves in a position where they need English for either employment requirements or for additional training which may be technical, military or vocational, discover almost without exception that their academic training within the school system, as far as English is concerned, has not been adequate for their subsequent needs. Thus the school systems do not provide, at least through the level of the secondary schools, the possibility of a student developing the level of competency he needs if he is to continue to receive training or instruction in English. Very possibly this is the responsibility of English language programs within preparatory and secondary schools, but this is not the point under discussion. There is, it seems to me, in this situation a certain paradox, for it looks as if the student who needs English gets less than he needs, while the student who doesn't need it, and usually doesn't want it, gets possibly more than he needs and certainly more than he wants. What would happen if English were removed as a requirement in schools and offered as an option would be interesting to observe, but one may suggest that it would become an almost universal elective. However, teachers might legitimately expect a higher level of performance from students who had chosen to study English than from those who were compelled to study it. In any case, it seems unlikely that in the foreseeable future English will disappear from the curriculum of Middle Eastern preparatory and secondary schools, or that the level of competency among secondary school graduates will suddenly significantly improve. Even if it did, it might remain far short of what is often required of them.

Now, there is a question as to how much money a Ministry of Education should continue to pour into trying to improve the quality of English language instruction in secondary schools when it is evident that much of this investment will produce no return. Interestingly enough, on the basis of recent observations made throughout the Middle East, it seems that educators in the non-Anglephone countries are the most concerned about improving English instruction, and that more work is being done to train English teachers in Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco than elsewhere. The motivation for this may be less pedagogical than economic for all three of these countries use large numbers of expensive expatriate English teachers at a considerable cost in hard currency. So quite naturally, independent of any concern with quality, they are anxious to train national teachers simply to husband foreign exchange. In most cases in the countries cited the expatriate teachers being replaced are not native speakers of English, and one may question the pedagogic justification of employing non-native speakers. But regardless of the conclusion as to the academic usefulness of such teachers, it is economically difficult to justify the employment of expatriate teachers, independent of linguistic or pedagogical considerations. There are strong reasons to believe that however one looks at it, it is economically necessary to utilize national teachers for language instruction in preparatory and secondary schools.

Let us return to the earlier and still unanswered question about the economic rationale of language teaching. One key and immediate question is simply "Who is paying?" If an external source will finance language programs for secondary schools, including such items as textbooks and language laboratories, and will provide native speakers to serve as teachers, then a national educational system *may* use these teachers and this equipment. A twenty-year survey of language training in the Middle East, however, must conclusively show a clear movement to the use of national as opposed to expatriate teachers. That there are political as well as economic reasons for this is evident, but there is no way to justify the employment of non-national English language teachers in straight classroom teaching situations in economic terms if the host country is paying for it; it simply costs more than it is worth. And, unless sufficient teachers can be financed by an outside source to offer instruction in all preparatory and secondary schools, the presence of foreign teachers in some schools[2] introduces inequalities that are hardly defensible in educational systems that are striving to be genuinely democratic. Of course, there are some countries so rich they could afford to hire all expatriate teachers to teach English, but it is my contention that this would not be sound economics, even if it were politically acceptable.

Because the provision of large numbers of trained native speakers to serve as language teachers would be disastrously expensive, those international organizations underwriting the costly efforts being made to improve the level of English language training in schools are concentrating their efforts on teacher training and materials production. They quite rightly are concerned with that ungracious term "the multiplier effect" and hope by training national teachers to improve the general level of instruction. To the degree that the teachers they train remain in the job, this may produce results, but my own experience leads me to conclude that once someone is trained in English well enough to be a truly good language teacher he is very apt to be so well trained as far as general ability that he leave language teaching for a more attractive form of enterprise. Nevertheless, the efforts being directed at training teachers are economically defensible, for such programs will have the greatest impact in terms of overall expenditure.

The official in the Ministry of Education or in the Ministry of Planning who has to defend the English-teaching budget, as well as his colleague in the University who has to try to get more funds for research and teacher-training,has a difficult task; for whereas it is possible to make a convincing argument that everyone needs mathematics and training in his native language, it is patently absurd, on the basis of what roles in society *need* proficiency in a foreign language, to even suggest that everyone *needs* to study English. Unfortunately, it is not easy to decide who will be allowed to study English and who will be refused the chance. No responsible educator would dare to put himself in that position. The alternative, which probably would make very good sense economically, would be to eliminate completely from preparatory and secondary schools the study of any foreign language--but let me say at once that I am not advocating this, for I do not think that educational decisions need to be or should be made in purely economic terms. So the dilemma remains. What is the economic rationale for language teaching?

> In practice, it is virtually impossible to calculate the rate of financial return on an educational project in the same manner as on a dam or factory because of the difficulty of ascertaining how much is really consumption and how much represents investment.[3]

The decisions that need to be made concerning priorities for expenditure in English language training in secondary education can not be made on a purely economic basis. It is not a simple question of return on investment for some expenditure has to be written off for consumption. Nevertheless, the national governments, whether they are considering expenditure on English language teaching in the schools as investment or as consumption, or more logically as imperative expenditure containing elements of both, are legitimately concerned about getting optimum return on their expenditure. To see that their efforts in improving English language training in the schools produce results, Arab governments are being ably and generously assisted in teacher training and materials production by foundations, by institutions such as the American Universities in Cairo and Beirut and by organizations like the British Council. Such efforts are expensive, but they are well directed and should produce benefits far greater than their costs.

Turning from language training programs in secondary schools which, if their objective is to develop some real degree of fluency in the use of English, cannot be considered as successful, we find that there are in many countries other alternatives for learning a language. One of these is the University system, where a student may develop true proficiency, and another is the private institute or language school, where a student may pay for private language lessons. In both cases we are dealing with a student whose motivation may be radically different from that of a secondary school student. Usually he is studying English because he is anxious to do so, and in most cases I would imagine that his motivation is far more economic than cultural. Students are anxious to perfect their English because they see fluency in English as a means to a higher standard of living; in many cases fluency in English is the *sine qua non* for advanced academic training or for a particularly desirable position in either the public or private sector of the economy.

Language training at the post-secondary level is more accurately considered as investment; unquestionably, when a student is paying money he has earned himself to buy language training, he considers that he is making an investment. Psychologically, the transition from the student/consumer to the student/investor is of enormous pedagogical importance; and those of us who have had the experience of teaching in situations where a student is paying to learn English can vouch for the change that takes place. This is not to suggest that there are no conscientious, well-motivated students in the school system, for such is not the case; but it is evident that the majority of students financing their own language study in institutes are highly motivated and hard working. Those purists who feel that the mastery of English should be done for its own sake, and that money motives are ulterior and debasing, might not be happy teaching in language institutes, but they would be hard put to deny that students are extremely hard working and demand a great deal from their professors. And in many cases they move ahead at a rate rarely experienced in the school system. While some may question their reasons, I would think that most would rejoice at such diligence and progress.

For the student financing his own language study, the economics of English language training are relatively simple: he is investing money in language training because he hopes to get a high return on this investment in either the form of a better job or more advanced training. In both cases his investment is wise; throughout the Middle East people who are bi-lingual and fluent in English earn more than those who know only one language. Many of the best jobs demand, in addition to a high level of general education, a genuine competence in English. In some cases this is a corporate requirement; in others virtually an international requirement, as in civil aviation. International organizations, whether they be truly international like the United Nations, or nationally dominated, like the petroleum companies, do not employ at top level jobs mono-lingual people, and the salary differential between someone who knows English well and someone who doesn't generally seems to warrant the investment in English language training.

There are substantial numbers of institutes where such training can be purchased. Even in those countries where foreign exchange is tightly controlled, as in Algeria and Tunisia, there are flourishing private language centers. That these centers are less professional than they should be is rather too bad, but as the competition increases between them the bad ones are apt to go out of business. In some of the centers there are substantial numbers of highly qualified and well-trained native-speakers employed as teachers; in others, primarily because of a shortage of such teachers, there are large numbers of itinerant British and Americans hired simply because they are available, speak English and can be gotten cheaply. Attempts to license such academies and to impose standards of performance and training on teachers have not been particularly successful, again mainly for economic reasons, for when the demand is very great, even a shoddy product fetches a good price. In most cases the institutes are supported by individual investors who are studying for a specific purpose and who, if they feel they are not getting their money's worth, will enroll for only one term.

One of the major areas of expenditure for English language training is not in the Middle East at all but in the United States and the United Kingdom. I am talking about the ever-increasing numbers of Middle Eastern students who go to these countries for either undergraduate or, increasingly, graduate training in an academic discipline and find that they first need to take an intensive English language training course. During the academic year 1967-1968 there were 5,603 students from the Arab world and 4,554 from Iran reported studying at accredited institutions in the United States.[4]

Let us look somewhat more closely at the economic implications of this. First of all, the figure is undoubtedly higher this year than it was three years ago, for more students are going to the United States from North Africa. I do not have figures on how many students from the Middle East are studying in the United Kingdom, but I would imagine it is substantial.

For a student to study at a university or college in the United States or the United Kingdom he is supposed to be proficient in English. In America his proficiency is most often measured by an acceptable score on the TOEFL examination. Minimal academic proficiency is considered to be indicated by a score of 500 or over.[5] The input of Middle Eastern students into the American educational system, and in this I am including Iranian students, is about 2,000 a year. Many of these students seek assistance in finding a place through the American Friends of the Middle East so we are able to get some idea as to their proficiency. With the exception of those students who have done their secondary work or their undergraduate work in an English speaking school, we rarely have a student who scores over 500 on the TOEFL exam. The average for over 400 students from the Maghreb who took the examination in the last two years was under 350 which is rated as nil proficiency.[6]

Some observers may argue that the situation is not as bad among Middle Eastern students as the above figures suggest. But among the twelve language groups for which mean total scores on TOEFL are given in the report of the College Entrance Examination Board, Semitic is the lowest,[7] and among the 70 languages classified, Arabic, at the same level as Persian, ranks seventh from the bottom.[8] The more carefully one examines the statistical information available, the more discouraged one becomes.

Of all candidates taking the examination from Africa, the Libyans ranked lowest as a group, while the next lowest were the Egyptians.[9] And in Asia, only the 34 students from Laos ranked lower than the 1,321 from Saudi Arabia for whom test scores are reported.[10]

Nor is there any cause for encouragement when one compares the results reported in the College Entrance Examination Report with the levels of achievement required by American institutions as shown in the statement of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs. The mean score for Arab students is 450, while 500 is required for most universities in America. One may think that this is not so bad, for the Arab students need only progress by 50 points, but the fact is that the test results include those students who have been studying English in the United States as well as those who are taking the examination in their home country for the first time.

Our conservative estimate is that more than half of all students coming to the United States from the Middle East must enroll in English language training programs in America and that they average six months in such programs. If we take half of the approximate input figure of 2,000 and multiply this by six months, we see that students from this area are buying 6,000 man-months of English language training every year in the United States. My own feeling is that this figure is very conservative. Multiply this by $500.00 a month, which again is an average cost for the program plus maintenance, and we see that over three million dollars is being spent by Middle Eastern students on English language training in the United States each year.

Tragically, many students do not have the economic resources to make the requisite language training investment and, by hook or crook, they manage to begin academic work without meeting generally acceptable standards of proficiency. When they fail, as many, many of them do, their entire investment is written off: economically, there is no return on a degree that was almost earned.

The average native speaker of English, or foreigner with true native fluency, earns his first graduate degree in the United States, assuming he reasonably well prepared academically, in less than two years. The average student from the Middle East takes over 30 months; another six million dollars that could have been saved if students developed true proficiency before they went to America.

If we consider what is spent on language training and add to this the increased costs incurred by lengthening the time required to earn a degree, we find that the Middle Eastern investment in English language training in the United States represents substantially over six million dollars annually. We are not talking about the equivalent of six million dollars in piasters, drachma, or rials, but six million dollars in hard currency reserves, and while this figure may gladden the hearts of American Economic Officers at Embassies throughout the Middle East, it is not one intended to delight the Central Bank auditors in Tunis, Tripoli and Teheran.

To the problem of large-scale expenditure of dollar reserves for English language training in the United States there are a number of obvious answers chief of which is to transfer most of the intensive language training from the United States to the Middle East. Before this solution can be acceptable, even though there are compelling economic reasons for implementing it, more research needs to be done on the effectiveness of language training programs in the Middle East as opposed to similar programs in America. Many of the authorities involved in financing such programs would obviously like to economize by doing more training before students go abroad, but they feel that progress is much greater in America than it could be in the Middle East. While this may be true of oral progress, it seems most problematical that a student will necessarily acquire formal vocabulary faster or learn to read better because he is studying in the United States rather than the Middle East. Unfortunately, no Ministry that we have dealt with is willing to use students it is sponsoring as a control group for the type of experiment that is needed to confirm or refute the assumption that one progresses more quickly in an environment where one can be exposed to the language constantly.

Although there is little question that expenditure for English language learning financed by a national Ministry of Education, University or other organization is clearly considered as investment, it is questionable that such an investment should continue to be made in dollars if the same ends can be achieved through a more judicious use of national currency to finance training at home. If a country is sending 100 students abroad annually, and each of these students is taking six months of language training, we are talking about an approximate expenditure of $300,000. In terms of use of hard currency reserves or balance of payments it makes no difference at all as to how this is financed if it is paid for in dollars. This same sum of money, if allocated for local training, could finance an institute that could provide intensive training to substantially more than 100 people, as well as effecting major economies in hard currency expenditures.

A third area of language training as looked at from an economic point of view that deserves some critical attention is intensive language training that is related to industrial employment, industrial training or subsequent vocational development. In this category are those English language training programs run by oil companies, by military organizations, by banks and by airlines, to cite a few examples that come rapidly to mind. To begin with, these programs are almost without exception justified as pure investment in manpower development and the question of consumption spending rarely arises. When a training manager for an international oil company develops a program to provide language training to company employees, most often requiring participation in language training by certain employees, he justifies the necessary investment in setting up such a program by pointing out that it will increase the contribution and the effectiveness of the employees. He is asking for authority to spend a certain number of company dollars on a program and in order to justify the expenditure he will have to at some time point to positive results.

In Algeria, Libya, Egypt, Iran and Saudi Arabia there are such programs currently being implemented, and in all probability there are programs in most other Middle Eastern countries as well. They may range from the one-teacher operation in which an individual, trained or not, is engaged by a company to give English lessons to the company employees, either on company time--the usual case--or after work, to the large-scale program in which a team of teachers is either employed directly or is brought in under contract with commercial language training companies and required to provide intensive language training to company or organizational employees.

Over the past five years I have had the opportunity to visit a number of such programs and to see what kind of work is being done. That these programs are important is unquestioned, and that they must produce positive results to justify their continued existence is evident, but they have in common the fact that they seem to be extremely expensive. It is not easy to put a price on language teaching, to say that so much progress in language ability should be able to be bought for such and such a price.

From an economic point of view it is clear that an increase in efficiency reducing the time required for students to stay in a program will produce a decrease in cost. In cost/benefit terms the most successful program is the one producing the optimum results in language performance in the quickest possible time at the lowest acceptable cost consistent with the objectives of the program. Too great a reduction in costs through a reduction in salaries and, to some degree, a consequent diminuation of quality in teaching staff, will produce a concomitant reduction in achievement on the part of the students, so would not be economically defensible. However, and possibly more to the point, increased costs incurred through higher salaries paid to expatriate teachers may not necessarily produce better academic results on the part of the students.

To produce sounder programs in those areas in which language training is definitely considered as an investment in the development of human resources, there are a number of steps that might logically be taken. First of these is greater utilization of highly specialized professional competence in the planning and development of such programs, particularly that expertise available from language training specialists devoted to the teaching of English to speakers of Arabic. In many cases the commercial language training organizations, while they have developed sound techniques and highly useful specialized materials, do not have experience with the particular problems of Arabic speakers, and as a result spend time solving problems that could be solved by other techniques more quickly. This costs money that does not have to be spent. I am thinking, for example, of the programs I have visited in which the English number system was being taught and drilled in the same way to Arabic speaking students that it is taught to Spanish speaking students. Were specialists consulted about program development, this kind of time consuming, marginally productive effort might be changed into efficient language teaching.

A second step would be to provide more training to those teachers who are going to be engaged for a relatively long period of time in language programs. Most of the teachers I have seen working in industrial and organizational training programs have not had specialized training in teaching English to Arab students, yet many of them have been engaged in such work for five or more years. In a number of cases these teachers have learned a great deal about successful techniques through experience, but this has meant taking a long period of time to learn something that could have been learned quickly. Moreover, many of the language teachers who have been continuously engaged in industrial programs have lamented the fact that they have lost their academic bases, and do not have the chance for the intellectual support from an institution that would, they feel, strengthen their programs. If they had a chance to attend local seminars or to participate in additional training while they are teaching, they would have a greater feeling of professional accomplishment while improving their abilities to teach.

A third way in which the private programs could be improved is in materials production. Many of the materials that are being used are produced for a mass market and are not really suitable for the specific training programs of industrial organizations. Competent professionals could develop these materials, and although such development might be costly, the long-range savings resulting from increased efficiency in learning should outweight the costs of producing program-tailored materials. Instead of producing the materials that are needed for a specific language training program, teachers most frequently look for the best available existing book or series and end up using instructional material ill designed for the program objectives of an industry-directed program.

In the three areas we have touched on, language training within the school systems, both secondary and university; language training outside of the Middle EAst; and language training for industrial or vocational objectives, cost is always an important consideration. When such programs need to be justified in terms of investment, rather than in terms of consumption, it is imperative that language training be as efficient as possible, and that costs be reduced. When one considers the magnitude of the overall investment--and it would surely be possible to demonstrate that English is costing the Middle Eastern consumers/investors over $15,000,000 a year in direct and indirect costs--it becomes imperative, from the economic point of view, to increase efficiency in order to reduce the extensive outlays of foreign exchange that are demanded. That is why it is important to examine what can be done to produce less costly programs. First, by improving the calibre of instruction in secondary school programs through teacher training, materials production, etc., the secondary school graduate who needs English will require less time to gain additional fluency. Second, by increasing training within the area so that the frightfully expensive training in America and England can be reduced, hard currency expenditures can be appreciably reduced. Third, by improving the industry-oriented language training given outside of the school systems, a greater return on educational investment will be made possible. When progress can be made in each of these directions, then we may have language training programs that make sense economically as well as academically.

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THE SPECIALIST'S VIEWPOINT

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The Specialists take up the challenge thrown down by Mr. Mace and show in their papers what has been achieved so far in the teaching of English for special purposes.

ENGLISH FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES: A SPECIALIST'S VIEWPOINT

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This talk is addressed to the "consumer": to the employers, the industries, the commercial firms, the government department and all those whose many and various needs help to determine the shape, the size, and even the quality, of English teaching in the Middle East.

Obviously, the needs of the consumer are not the only factors determining language teaching operations. I think it is also true that learning a relevant foreign language is valuable in itself as part of the general and cultural education of the individual citizen. It would be necessary to keep a place for foreign languages somewhere in national school syllabuses even if there were no "consumers" such as yourselves. But if it was only the educational and cultural justification which existed, then the nature of the teaching, and the number of people who should receive it, would be very different. One of the defects of the present organisation of English language teaching in most parts of the world, including the Middle East, is that these two different reasons for teaching and learning English have not been properly taken into account. The number of people learning English is constantly growing, chiefly because of the growing needs which you, the consumers, have. But the nature of the teaching remains more suitable for the general educational and cultural purpose.

When you look at the English teaching profession from the outside, you must find it confusing. At one extreme you will have seen examples of people who have learned English almost perfectly and who switch into and out of English with ease and facility. These are the people--doctors, administrators, oilfield engineers, businessmen, airline staff and so on--you want to employ, but insist on their being able to make practical use of English in their jobs. At the other extreme you know people who have followed years of instruction yet who are still completely incapable of understanding English when it is spoken to them, of speaking it intelligibly, or of reading it, still less of writing it. The same contrasting observations can be made for children as for adults: there are children who learn English quickly and easily and others who study hopelessly for years.

The question arises, what are the reasons for failure? Is it a matter of individual aptitude for languages? Is it a question of good or bad teaching? Is it a case of using poor textbooks? Above all, is it possible to say anything about basic conditions that are necessary if success is to be achieved? I believe it is possible to do so. I think the profession can now say to the consumer--for instance, to the oil industry, or to a shipping firm, or even to a government--if you, the consumer, will describe accurately the precise achievement in English that you require, we can "engineer" a system that will reach this target with a very small wastage rate. But in order for us to reach the target you will have to accept our technical and professional judgment about how to do it and about how much it will cost.

Suppose we try the following approach: let's consider those cases of language teaching which are consistently fairly successful, and see if we can identify common factors leading to success; and let's consider cases which are consistently unsuccessful and see if we can identify negative factors.

This approach at once brings out a hidden difficulty. What do we mean by "success"? In the past, success has conventionally been related to passing one of a small number of examinations--the School Certificate, or the Cambridge Lower Certificate of Proficiency, or the G.C.E. Ordinary-level English language examination, and so on. But are these exams in fact suitable for measuring success in English? I personally believe--and many people agree with me--that they are almost totally unsuitable for measuring practical success in learning English as a foreign language; and that the more technical, specific and restricted the needs of the learner, the less relevant these exams are. For many thousands of teachers these exams are used only because no better alternative exists, not because they are valuable in themselves. Take as an example a counter clerk in an airline office. He needs to be able to understand his customers when they ask about routes, times, money, passport difficulties and so on; and he must be able to speak to them in an understandable and acceptable way. He has to be able to read and to speak about the documents of his occupation. But his needs in writing are largely restricted to tickets, baggage labels, helpful notes on how to find a hotel in town, and similar rather trivial tasks. He will certainly not want to write essays. Now, to what extent has his school syllabus--that is, the syllabus of one of the conventional English language exams--contributed to his command of English? In my view, very little. Or rather, it will have provided part of what he needs, and a vast quantity that he does not need. And to that extent the exam syllabus has been time-wasting and inefficient. Large quantities of time and effort have been spent, by the learner and by the teacher, on learning kinds of material (for example, poetry or verse) that is essentially useless for the learner's eventual purposes.

Can we talk about "success" at all then? I think we can, provided we consider success in relation to a particular target. Instead of the vague, imprecise idea of "success in learning English" we need to use the idea of success in achieving a particular target or criterion which must be described in considerable detail for the needs of each different consumer.

Having decided that "success" is to be measured in terms of a percise aim, let us return to consider cases of generally successful foreign language learning. One large set of such cases occurred during the Second World War, both in the United States and in Britain. Very large numbers of soldiers, and others, had to learn various languages for specific, practical purposes. (Any question of general educational value was quite irrelevant.) As an example, consider the courses in spoken Japanese which the R.A.F. organised. The aim was to understand Japanese aircraft in combat, so that defensive action could be taken immediately and counter-attacks launched. The aims of the teaching were restricted. There was virtually no use made of reading or writing and very little of speaking. It was understanding the spoken language of fighter aircraft, as picked up on the radio in very poor reception conditions, that was important. The courses were very successful and so were the military listening operations themselves. And there were very many other, less spectacular, examples of successful language teaching in war-time.

All these types of teaching and learning were examples of language teaching for special purposes. In other words, I am affirming that it is in such programmes that the greatest success rate occurs. Why is this? Well, one can see that the courses I have mentioned had certain special features in common. For instance, it was absolutely vital that the learners should succeed, and so the amount of teaching was determined by finding out how much learning time was needed to achieve success. In case this sounds obvious, it is worth remembering that when the teaching is based on general educational and cultural ideas, the quantity of teaching will reflect opinions about how many classes per week, over how many years, are educationally desirable, rather than how quickly a given target can be achieved. The lesson for the consumer is that for each special task there is a minimum learning period below which success is unlikely to be reached.

Secondly, the learners were hand-picked; they were highly motivated by receiving extra money and privileges (and being permitted to do something that interested them instead of being drafted willy-nilly); and they were under discipline and so could be made to work at their learning. This is an important point: there is a persistent idea that learning a language should not require any effort on the part of the learner. This idea is almost completely false, not because effortless learning cannot occur, but because in order to be effortless it must take place over a much longer period of time, and with various other favourable circumstances present as well. Unless you can trade-off effort against much longer learning time, it has to be accepted that the learner must supply energy, interest, concentration and effort to his learning. The lesson for the consumer is this: the employer whose workers needs to acquire special skills in English may need to offer incentives, in the form of extra money or prospects, to those who are working to possess those skills. He will soon find that people with a real incentive work harder at learning and that their standards of achievement in English will rise.

The third special feature of these military language programmes was that the teachers were quite exceptional and had access to the full range of assistance by way of recordings, native speakers, visual aids, and so forth; further, they used teaching materials and course-books which they designed and wrote especially for their own aims and conditions. The lesson here is that the standard of the teachers is of great importance. So, too, are the standards of the centre where they work. So also are the teaching materials they use. Success can take place when the teachers are not very competent and when the textbooks are poor, but under these conditions success cannot be guaranteed. Indeed, one can predict with certainty that the percentage of success among a large population of learners will be substantially affected by both these factors of textbooks and teacher standards.

In the field of English teaching one can quote a number of examples of rather successful operations: the teaching of Hungarian refugees after the 1956 uprising; the teaching of immigrants on board ship on the way to Australia and in the camps on arrival; the teaching of English to airline pilots; and many others.

What about consistently unsuccessful language teaching and training? Without naming particular courses--although probably each of us could think of countries where pupils in school learn English for several years yet are unable to use English for any purpose at the end of their course--we can see that particular drawbacks regularly occur in many countries. What are these regular drawbacks? Often the aims of teaching are vague. Sometimes there is too little teaching or perhaps too much of what goes on in the English class is wasted time. Sometimes the teaching is spread so thinly that the learner has constant opportunities for forgetting what he has just learned and no chance of consolidating it. Sometimes the pupil is uninterested, or bored, or lazy, or even hostile to the subject. Sometimes the standard of the teachers is too low, perhaps lower than the criterion their pupils are supposed to reach. Sometimes the textbooks and materials are irrelevant or of poor quality. Often the classroom conditions are so bad that learning is impaired. In any of these cases it can be predicted with certainty that the learners' success-rates will be low and that the average standard of achievement available to you, the consumer, will also be low.

The most important single requirement upon the consumer is that he should describe in as much detail as possible just what command of English he is seeking from his employees. To invent an example at the lowest level, suppose an oil company wants to train drilling-rig hands to use English. The company might specify oral English only, with no need to write it, and with reading ability restricted to a dozen crucial instructions (like DANGER, EXPLOSIVES, NO SMOKING). The range of English might be stated in terms of a minimum vocabulary; it might concentrate on commands and instructions and replies to them; it might include a small number of "cause-and-effect" items such as AS SOON AS, UNTIL, WHEN. . .THEN. . ., IF, BECAUSE and a few more. Finally, it might be specified that the employees should be able to understand English in this restricted range when spoken (or shouted) in American, Canadian or British accents, in conditions of considerable noise. A specification of this kind would make it possible for the language teaching specialist to prepare suitable courses and teaching materials and to predict a high rate of success.

Take as another example an agricultural botanist, with Arabic as his mother tongue, but with fluent French. Suppose he works for a government department and needs to be able to read technical and scientific papers written in English in his subject. The learning and teaching task is then specified as a reading-only ability in a highly restricted area of English. Teaching courses to achieve this could be produced fairly quickly, making use of the similarities between French and English, and the learning load would be quite small because the scientist would not be attempting to learn "the whole of" English--whatever that means.

Let us take a third example. Consider the English language needs of someone engaged in the import-export business. He has to be able to carry on telephone and telex conversations, and live conversations as well, with his customers and suppliers; to translate correspondence; to understand advertising literature; to write reports; to understand accounts and financial statements written in English; to take contacts out for meals; and generally to operate as a businessman, using English for the purpose. To specify an English course for his needs is very much more difficult than for the previous examples. His requirements are those of an educated man (or woman) capable of expressing himself through English, over and above the specialised needs of a businessman. Consequently, the learning load will be greater and the teaching materials will be more extensive. In particular, a learner of this kind will need a great deal of practice material, including wide reading, recordings, conversation practice and so on. Nevertheless, the more exactly the ultimate requirements are described, the easier it will be to achieve success.

Returning to the way English is learned at present, if one looks simply at the numbers of learners involved, it is probably true that far more people are taught badly and fail to achieve success in English than are taught well and do achieve success. And yet even so I believe the situation is extremely hopeful for the future. One reason for optimism is that the proportion of good teaching and successful learning seems to be increasing fairly rapidly. The second and more important reason is that the English teaching profession has been passing through a period of radical change both in its technical competence and in its internal organisation.

In the past ten years a great deal has been learned as a result of contact between language teachers on the one hand, and on the other hand specialists in scientific linguistics and psychology, specialists in anthropology and sociology, and those who specialise in educational technology. The art of teaching has itself learned from a study of methods and theories in science. It is now understood that literature is not the only socially acceptable form of language. The idea of special teaching courses for specialised aims is now universally acceptable. The urgent need for improvement in all the many aspects of language teaching is understood, even though major changes take years to bring about because of the sheer scale of the English teaching industry.

Parallel with these new ideas about how teaching can be improved there has grown up a new and highly productive arm of the profession. It is often referred to, in Europe and America, as "applied linguistics" and it consists of the field where three main elements come together: first, certain scientific disciplines--or at any rate parts of them--which are concerned with human language, namely, linguistics, psychology and social theory; second, methodology and educational theory as they relate to the teaching of language; and third, technical aids and equipment. The inter-disciplinary field of applied linguistics is almost entirely located in universities and higher teacher training colleges. The various centres of applied linguistics which have been established in Europe, America and Asia have provided a means of injecting new ideas and methods into the teaching profession by dealing above all with the trainers of teachers, and even the trainers of teacher-trainers, rather than working solely or mainly in the schools. Of course, these centres need to maintain contact with what goes on in the classroom. But on the whole they have succeeded in doing this, and by maintaining a broad and inter-disciplinary approach they are helping to create a system in which the needs of the teacher, the learner, the academic theorist and the consumer are all taken into account. What is more, it is in centres of this kind that one finds the breadth and depth of professional and technical competence that is necessary in order to meet the special needs of particular kinds of consumers.

We are back to you, the consumer, at last! From your point of view, the growth of major professional centres--such as the one here at the American University of Beirut--is of crucial importance in at least two ways. The first way in which the centres are important is in providing a group of specialists with different interests and experience capable of putting into practice the various ideas we have been discussing. It is one thing to be able to summarise the conditions for success in language teaching. It is quite another to put them into practice in a particular situation. But a centre can provide a focus of professional advice, information, encouragement. In the second place, a centre provides a source of specialist ability which can help to improve the standards of teaching in a town, a region, a country. It can do this by giving advice, by running courses, by giving training to key members of the staff of training colleges, by helping in the re-design of syllabuses and in many other ways. And thirdly, almost the most important of all, a centre forms a link in the international network of scholars who work in this field. The history of developments in applied linguistics and language teaching in recent years includes contributions from France, the United States, Czechoslovakia, Great Britain, Scandinavia, Canada, Australia, the Soviet Union and many other countries. New ideas and advances are continually being reported from many places, and only a team of highly qualified specialists can hope to keep abreast of developments and pass them on in a digested form for the benefit of the communities and countries they serve.

One way in which the various professional centres are contributing to the improvement of English teaching is by providing specialist courses for senior and experienced teachers, teacher-trainers, inspectors and advisers. Taking my own country as an example, there are Diploma courses and M.A. courses in applied linguistics and the teaching of English as a foreign language at Edinburgh, Reading, Leeds, Bangor, Manchester, York, Nottingham, London, my own university, Essex, and others. There are equivalent courses in France, the United States, India, Singapore and elsewhere. And by taking experienced people in influential positions and introducing them to new ideas, these courses produce the maximum effect on the teaching profession.

It is time for me to summarise the main lessons that we are learning from recent experience and research. Here is my own personal view of the essential factors in the successful learning and teaching of English. From this you will be able to get an idea of how much is possible nowadays, and of the limitations that the consumer, the learner and the teacher have to impose on each other.

The first essential is that the aims of the learner be stated as precisely as possible. The more detailed the specification of what is to be learned and what the learner is to be capable of at the end of his course, the greater are the chances of success in achieving it.

The second essential concerns the quantity of time allotted to formal instruction. There are at least three aspects to the quantity of time: the total amount of instruction expressed in hours; the rate of intensity of instruction expressed in hours per week; and (least important) the total duration of the course. Thus, one might speak of "a course of three hundred and sixty hours, six hours per week for thirty weeks in each of two years." The total must be sufficient to enable the learner to reach his targert, but not much more, since class time not needed for learning can quickly become boring. This is a serious point: it has been suggested that one reason for poor levels of success in many secondary school English courses is that too much time is allotted to too little learning, with consequent lack of interest. The intensity, too, must be sufficient but not too severe. It seems that between four and sixteen hours per week is the range of "normal" intensity of learning, with a preference for the highest rate possible within this range. At less than four or more than sixteen hours per week, success is still possible but special precautions have to be taken to guard against boredom and forgetting at the lower rates and against fatigue and strain at the upper rates. As yet there is no exact means of predicting the appropriate total quantity of instruction for a given target, but the professionals can guess with fair accuracy what will be required. The important point is that a target requiring (say) 150 hours of teaching just will not be reached if for administrative or financial reasons only 100 hours of instruction are given.

The third group of conditions relates to the learner. It is essential that he should give his attention, his interest and his effort throughout the course. It is one of the duties of the teacher to keep up the learner's interest, but the learner has to come to the course in a willing frame of mind. Unwilling learners rarely learn a language. Neither do the idle, or those who are bored. As for personal aptitude, it seems to be the case that variations of ability between individuals are much less than used to be believed, at any rate as far as practical command of the language is concerned. But this question, together with the relation between intelligence and foreign language ability, is still rather mysterious.

Fourth among the conditions comes a group which relate to the teacher. People can learn a foreign language without a teacher or in spite of a poor one. All the same, other things being equal, the highest success-rates among learners tend to be achieved by those who have personal contact with a good teacher throughout their instruction. But what makes "a good teacher"? Probably four features stand out above all: first, that the teacher should have a reasonably error-free command of English within the limits of the syllabus. It does not matter to the learner whether his teacher has a near-native command of English outside the classroom, as long as his performance in the classroom and within the limits of the day's teaching and learning is free from major errors. Second, the teacher must have an easy command of the techniques of teaching, of classroom presentation, of encouraging the learner, of maximising the effectiveness of the instruction--in a word, of managing the learning situation. Third, the teacher has to be familiar with the syllabus and the course-books and the various other materials he is using. Fourth, the teacher must have a personality and an attitude that will encourage the pupil's learning and maintain his effort at a high level.

Returning to the conditions for success in learning English, fifth, and finally, the materials need to be appropriate to the aims and needs of the learner. Materials-writing has become fairly sophisticated--especially in teaching specialist learners. Once again, other things being equal, the production of improved course-books, etc., can lead to an improvement in rates of success in learning. But in my view the materials are probably the least important of the five factors. Certainly the former concentration, thirty years ago, on vocabulary selection, on grading and control, did not bring quite the massive effects that were claimed for them.

These five factors, then, seem to contain the essential conditions for success: precisely formulated aims; enough teaching time, as intensively arranged as possible within the normal range; a learner who gives sufficient effort to learning; a competent teacher with an error-free command of the English of the syllabus; and suitable materials. But equally, if any one of these conditions is not fulfilled, then the success achieved will fall short of that which might be produced. And we must recognise that in the majority of school and college systems at present the achievement in English falls well below what could be achieved.

Perhaps I can now summarise the position of English language teaching. It is nowadays possible to achieve very high rates of success, with all kinds of learners, but in order to do this it is necessary to state the aims of the learning in close detail and to meet all the basic conditions for success. As part of the "professionalisation" of language teaching, centres of special knowledge and experience in applied linguistics are coming into existence which can provide a backing of technical competence for the teachers of an area and help in realizing new needs. If this conference leads to the strengthening of the centre in Beirut, and to helping the teaching of English in the Middle East, it will have been an honour to have been present.

RECENT RESEARCH FOR SPECIAL ENGLISH COURSES

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For some of us, personal involvement in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages has been like a journey down the Nile. We set sail first on the waters of Lake Victoria, that wide expanse of mother-tongue teaching experience, but in due course branched off down the White Nile on the first stage of our overseas experience. Soon we found ourselves trapped in the Sudd swamps where progress was almost brought to a halt by a morass of teaching methods and materials inappropriate for foreign learners. If we retained a sense of direction and forced a channel through, we sailed on again, still somewhat sluggishly, until at the confluence of the Blue and White Niles we were suddenly carried forward by the impetus of the silt-rich waters surging down from the Ethiopian Highlands of linguistic research. The mainstream of the Nile then carried us on a course which, if not direct, was nevertheless fairly steady and impeded only by the occasional pedagogical mud-bank or linguistic cataract. At the Nile Delta, however, we have a choice of outlets to the sea of linguistic competence. We can follow the mainstream of English for general communication or we can navigate along the narrower channels of English for special purposes.

Whatever channel we choose, if we are to navigate our way successfully, that channel needs to be properly charted and its hazards located, so that the most purposeful and direct course might be steered. We can learn from the trials and errors of those who may unsuccessfully have preceded us--from their strandings and founderings and perhaps wasteful meanderings--and we can learn, too, from others who have tried systematically and scientifically to take soundings and chart a route using sophisticated modern techniques. This is what research on the teaching of English for special purposes is all about--absorbing what is to be learnt from previous experience and conducting such further investigations as seem relevant, purposeful and practical.

Before I say a little about what may be considered as relevant, purposeful and practical, it is important to utter a cautionary word and point out, as Professor M.A.K. Halliday has done,[1] that research should not always be expected to produce immediate and direct results. Nor is it desirable that all research in this field of English for special purposes be linked to a special requirement. The planning of a particular course, at a particular institution, in response to a particular outside demand, can lead, and has led in the past, to excessive fragmentation and duplication of effort. This danger can be reduced, of course, by the resources of such centres as the English Teaching Information Centre (ETIC) of the British Council, which includes in its aims the diffusion of information about all aspects of teaching English as a second or foreign language and jointly maintains, with the Centre for Information on Language Teaching (CILT), a register of current research. There will always be the need for research which will feed into the teaching process in a rather indirect way, and perhaps not always in the way that was first envisaged. As Halliday has written,

> The pursuit of generally agreed aims may be most effective if we do not demand an immediate pay-off for each investigation, as if its results could be fed straight into a course preparation programme. The problem is to evaluate the research in such a way as to strike a balance between a rigid demand for mechanical results on the one hand and an undirected and unrealistic dispersal of resources on the other.

With this cautionary note, therefore, let me say a little about the main areas of recent research relevant to the teaching of English for special purposes. There are four such areas and I give them in what appears to be the most logical order of enquiry:

1. Research directed towards a clear specification of the requirements of a learner wanting a knowledge of English for a special purpose.
2. Research directed towards an identification of the particular characteristics of English when used for a special purpose.
3. Research directed towards a better understanding of the language learning process.
4. Research directed towards the development of an effective teaching methodology.

Investigation into the requirements of the adult language learner (or his employer) is a form of consumer research. Before the linguist can describe, or the teacher can teach, they should have as explicit an account as possible of the special uses for which English is needed as a language of communication--what the learner is expected to _do_ with the language. It is not very helpful to talk broadly of English for scientists or doctors--the language problems of a foreign student beginning his medical studies in Britain, for example, are very different from those of a highly qualified foreign surgeon participating in an international conference where English is the medium of communication, and the problems of both are very different from those of an Indian doctor in the British National Health Service trying to understand the dialect of a Scottish farm worker. Even in the limited field of interaction with professional colleagues of similar standing, communication can embrace informal technical discussions, formal committee work and both formal and informal social occasions. Basically what we want to know is who says or writes what, to or for whom, when, in what circumstances, and why. We may not be able to cater for the requirements of any one individual, but if the differing requirements are more explicitly formulated this is likely to bring out more useful generalisations. The aim of this Conference is to bring together English language specialists and those able to identify the uses of English they think relevant to adults who require a command of that language to enable them to contribute to national development. In this area of investigation, the area of sociolinguistics, the language specialists know the questions to ask but the consumers must supply the answers. And, though a fundamental area of enquiry for our purpose, this area of sociolinguistic research is still comparatively unexplored.

Given answers to the questions just posed, the descriptive linguist can turn to the second area of research and try to identify the particular characteristics of English when used for the special purposes thus defined. Many investigations in this field have not in fact developed from such a definition and, although important pieces of research, exemplify the caution I gave earlier that relevant research cannot always be fed into the teaching process with the expectation of immediate returns. And it is in this area, too, with particular reference to what is broadly called scientific English, that there has been the greatest duplication of effort, ranging from student dissertations to full-scale sponsored investigations like Huddlestone's four-year team enquiry[2] into the linguistic properties of scientific English, in which some 135,000 words of written scientific English were subjected to grammatical analysis in respect of sentence and clause features. The immediate aim of Huddlestone's work was purely descriptive, but the findings are there for any teacher or course writer who wishes to make use of them. The trouble they will have, however, is in trying to decide from all the linguistic data given what is most relevant for the specific needs of any group of students. The cart has come before the horse--too much broad descriptive work before the fundamental enquiries into the explicit uses for which specialised English is required.

These investigations, however, have had some effect upon what is taught and on the emphasis felt to be relevant to the teaching of English for special purposes. Investigations into the characteristics of special English are implicitly, sometimes explicitly, comparative. They presume that the typical features of one special use differ from those of another and that both differ from the typical features of English used for general communication. Some investigators believe that the differences are mainly lexical and that one special English shares the same grammatical patterns of another but differs from it in the vocabulary employed. This has led to some preoccupation with word frequency lists and teachers and textbooks have often concentrated excessively on the technical vocabulary associated with a special purpose. In fact, this may well be the least difficult problem for the foreign learner, who may find greater difficulty with semi-technical words which have a range of meaning or with the basic syntax of the language. Although the syntax of technical language does not differ fundamentally from the syntax of everyday language, the greater frequency of certain grammatical constructions in technical texts may necessitate the selection of such constructions for priority in teaching. However, it is important to emphasise that special purpose teaching does not mean exposing the learner only to examples of the limited special language he wants to control.

The third research area I mentioned concerns the language learning process. This is the area of psycho-linguistics, a comparatively recent area for research. Obviously the more we know about the learning process in general and, in particular, the differences between learning one's mother tongue and learning a foreign language, and between learning as an adult and learning as a child, the better. We need to know, too, what makes one person learn more quickly and more efficiently than another. These are factors which must determine our teaching methodology. I said earlier that we may not be able to cater for the socio-linguistic requirements of any one individual; no more can we expect to cater for the psycho-linguistic variations in the individual as a language learner. In both areas, however, research is likely to help us make more useful generalisations to aid our teaching.

All this leads us to the fourth area of research--methodology, which embraces the problems of selecting and grading teaching material and presenting that material to students. Perhaps I could illustrate this problem by briefly referring to an example of the process of preparing material for a special purpose. The special purpose was the development of an English course for first year students at the University of Khartoum, where we started with three basic assumptions.[3] The first was that the students' main concern with English was to understand modern scientific writing. The second was that science students learning English as a foreign language would have time and attention only for those features of English that were strictly relevant to their needs, and the third was that there are three stages in scientific English: (a) a foundation that could serve for any purpose; (b) a superstructure that could serve for any scientific purpose; and (c) a later superstructure serving some special scientific purpose.

Implicit in the first assumption was the need for an early decision on what particular communication skills the material was intended to develop and on the particular circumstances in which it was expected those skills would be exercised. Different circumstances obviously lead to different conclusions regarding the aim and purpose of the materials. Our students' needs were seen to be, in order of priority:

1. Understanding written scientific English (textbook).
2. Understanding spoken scientific English (lectures).
3. Ability to write scientific English (course work and examinations).
4. Ability to speak scientific English (course work and tutorials).

The second assumption begs two important questions: What do we mean by scientific English and What are the relevant features of what we choose to call scientific English? All I need say here is that scientific English embraces the levels of (a) popular science, (b) textbooks, (c) learned articles; and that there are significant differences in the lexical and structural characteristics of these levels. The decision taken at Khartoum was that texts selected from popular science and learned articles were more or less irrelevant to any first-year University course in science and rarely provided an opportunity for development through continuity of material. This decision to concentrate on the language of textbooks restricted the range of linguistic analysis necessary to decide what lexical and structural features should be emphasised in the English course.

The third assumption was that there are three stages in scientific English. In most circumstances the foundation stage is provided by the normal school English course, which is not directed towards any special purpose; the superstructure for general scientific purposes is usually required at sixth-form or first-year University level; and the later superstructure for special scientific purposes, either in the last years of a University course or in professional life after qualification. We could say at Khartoum that our concern was with students who had reached an intermediate stage both in their command of English and in their scientific education. Scientific language cannot be divorced from scientific ideas and difficulties arise, therefore, when command of English as the language of communication is out of phase with the scientific ideas which a person is capable of communicating.

These assumptions, therefore, and their implications, were all factors which influenced the selection and grading of our teaching material and the presentation of that material in the limited teaching circumstances imposed by administrative needs.

This brief survey of the main areas of relevant research leading to a teaching programme underlines the need for cooperative effort from a variety of disciplines. In universities it has not always been possible to obtain the necessary interdepartmental cooperation and for this reason there have been established language centres such as Professor Strevens' at the University of Essex, where the interdisciplinary cooperation necessary for work in this field can be more readily created. Publishers, too, are beginning to sponsor cooperative effort, an example of which is Oxford University Press' English Language Teaching Development Unit at Colchester. And a specific example of cooperation is work currently in progress on the preparation of a multi-media course on English for Business being produced by the British Broadcasting Corporation and the British Council in association with Oxford University Press. I should like to conclude by outlining the development of this project.[4]

Research into the potential market for the English for Business course was commissioned by the BBC and carried out early in 1970 by the English Language Teaching Development Unit of the Oxford University Press. The basis of the research was a questionnaire sent to over 300 commercial firms in Europe and Japan involved in a wide range of industrial and commercial activities. The survey showed that certain types of staff (managerial and executive, secretarial, research, technical, sales, advertising and marketing) need to use English regularly at work while other types (production, buying, accounts, transport and distribution) need to use English rarely. The language skills required by the staff who use English regularly were analysed and, apart from some obvious deviations(e.g., the managerial staffs' predominant need for oral fluency, the technical staffs' need to be able to read technical literature), the requirements of the different types were shown to be generally similar. The one clear exception was provided by secretarial staff. The research analysed in detail the specific language requirements of the relevant staff in terms of lexis, grammar, social and situational formulae.

While parts of the English for Business course are intended to appeal to anyone interested in the way English is used in business contexts, the principal aim is to cater for the highly motivated student who needs to improve his English, either to do his existing job better or to gain a better position. The course will therefore provide a wide range of materials for the acquisition and improvement of those language skills shown by the research to be important for business people who use English regularly at work.

The prospective student will be expected to have received a formal grounding in English, to be acquainted with most of the fundamental grammar, and be able to understand and use a vocabulary of the important structural words in addition to perhaps 2,000 general content words. However, his grammar may be weak or suffer from mother-tongue interference, and his ability to take part in spontaneous conversation will probably be undeveloped; in particular, he will almost certainly be unable to operate the social and situational formulae which are essential to business communication, largely because such formulae are not susceptible to conventional grammar-based classification and teaching. The main emphasis of the course, therefore, will be on the teaching of the formulae appropriate to business contexts. In addition to covering the well-defined formulae of activities such as public speaking, telephone contact, entertainment, formal reporting and product description, the course will give prominent attention to other formulae which are essential to the successful operation of communication in business because they constitute the recognised means of attracting attention, interpreting, forcing a point home, manipulating a discussion, etc.

The course will cater for two distinct types of student:

1. The individual, following the course at home by means of a series of TV lessons supported by other written or recorded material.
2. The group, following the course in an institution or as part of a firm's training programme. Like the individual, the group will follow the TV lessons (as they are transmitted, or by means of film/video-cassettes), but they are likely to

use the written/recorded material as part of a teacher-centred system of learning.

The different pedagogical requirements of these types will be recognised by providing a wide range of suitable materials designed to perform the pedagogical tasks most appropriate to their specific media. The series of TV lessons, however, is seen as the basis of the course as a whole; these lessons will provide the situational focus and reference point of all the individual lesson units of the course.

There will be thirteen TV lessons at first. The series will be filmed in colour. Each fifteen-minute lesson will feature typical business situations or operations involving an imaginary English engineering firm which is developing a component for an electrically-driven city car. The serial story format will be used and the style of presentation is expected to offer sufficient human interest to attract a wide general audience in addition to highly motivated students. Since the specific aim of the TV series is to demonstrate English in use in convincing business contexts, the TV lesson will not be divided, in the customary manner, into narrative sequences and teaching sequences. However, the form in which the narrative is presented will give opportunities for repetition, restatement and reinforcement. Moreover, since it is envisaged that many TV organisations may want to extend the lessons to fill transmission units of up to thirty minutes, the BBC will provide extra material (written instruction, still photographs, filmed extracts) for the local production of teaching sequences. The lessons will be suitable for direct TV transmission, for 16mm film projection, or for transfer to video-cassettes.

Scripting of the TV series has already begun. Production is scheduled to begin in the spring of this year and it is hoped that the course will be ready for distribution at the end of the year.

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SURVEYING SOME SOLUTIONS

This section presents some case studies of actual programs which have provided English instruction for special purposes.

PRESENTATION TO BEIRUT CONFERENCE ON ADULT ENGLISH FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

CHARLES D. JOHNSON
ARAMCO

In talking about the ARAMCO experience in teaching English to the Saudi, I want to emphasize that policies, approaches and problems--the very situation relating to the teaching of English--involve far more than English itself. English training is only a part--although a very important part--of a larger program designed to make the Saudi an effective member of the ARAMCO workforce. This program includes an academic course of math, general science, physics, chemistry, history, geography and commercial subjects--all taught in English--as well as a five-year course in English itself. Completion of this academic course gives our trainees roughly the equivalent of an 11th grade education in a U.S. high school. There is also a shop program to give the employees both theoretical and practical training for the job. The theoretical work is in English as is a certain amount of the practical training. In addition, there is on-the-job training and there are special courses--also in English--for those in supervisory positions.

Academic training is intended for all Saudi employees who demonstrate capability. The amount of training depends in part upon the requirements of the job, in part upon the employee's own aptitude, interest and performance. An employee who is not assigned to training--or is not assigned beyond a certain level--may attend on a voluntary basis until he has completed the course providing he is able to keep up with the work and pass the tests. At present there are 806 employees in our academic program, 671 of these studying English. 246 are full-time trainees, many of whom are high-potential employees targeted for responsible jobs in ARAMCO; they will continue their studies in technical schools, colleges and universities in the U.S. I might add that, in general, our trainees are highly motivated, inasmuch as promotions, pay increases and out-of-kingdom training assignments depend to a considerable degree on success in the academic program.

As long as ARAMCO has been involved in formal training--and this (in one form or another) covers thirty years--there has been a special emphasis on English language training. English is the language of oil technology and of the people who work in oil. Communication on the job creates an obvious need for English training, although in ARAMCO, at the present time, the oral communication factor is less important than it was in the past since the number of Americans in the field is steadily decreasing as the Saudis themselves take over the skilled jobs and more and more of the supervision. We would have difficulty justifying our program on this basis, then. I think we must say that the principal reason for English training is to enable the Saudi to get the technical training that is required by the oil industry and to be able to read the job manuals and other printed materials relevant to oil production. At the present time, and adding everything together, it is more practical, more effective, more economical, and more in the interests of the employee himself, to teach him English and give him his training in English than it would be to try to convert all the materials into Arabic.

More specifically, at the end of the English course we want the trainee to be able to carry on a relatively smooth, grammatically correct conversation on a variety of job-related and non-job-related subjects; to read with comprehension a wide variety of unedited technical and non-technical material; to prepare reports and to express his ideas in a written form, logically and with relatively few mechanical errors. In more concrete terms, we want him to get at least 450 on the Test of English as a Foreign Language. (In actual fact, quite a few get 500 or above, 500-550 being the acceptable score in most U.S. colleges and universities.)

At this point I wish to make clear a major tenet of ARAMCO policy with regard to training. The Company does not take the narrow view that training is simply a matter of giving a man the specific skills that are required on his specific job. Rather it has pursued the long-range goal of developing the man to his maximum potential--and this means educating him in the broader sense. This is in ARAMCO's own interests. The Company needs not only men with all kinds of technical skills; it needs men with the kind of transferable skills which enable them to move from one job to another; men who can take on responsibility--and more and more responsibility--within the Company; men who can exercise initiative and make decisions; men who can think and solve problems.

It is the position of ARAMCO training today that if the course of academic study is to help produce the kind of employee the Company wants and needs, then training must go beyond the imparting of academic learning; it must involve itself in changing attitudes and behavior, to make a better "achiever." And since the individual's potential to achieve is limited in large part by his ability to reason--to analyze, to analogize, to make inferences, to draw conclusions, to interpret and so forth--it is also felt there must be special emphasis on the development of thinking skills. Finally, it is the position of training that the course and/or the content of the course should not be narrowly confined to job needs--indeed, need not be directly job-related at all. Our English, therefore, is not specific to the job. It is general English. The idea is to give the trainee a broad base from which, in the development of his potential, he can move out in a number of directions. The idea, also, is to give him a broader and deeper understanding of the world in which he lives and of his place in it.

Strictly from the standpoint of oil production, the program may seem something of a luxury, and I would be less than candid if I did not tell you that in the past there was a certain amount of resistance from people in management and on the line who felt that we were wasting man-hours by teaching things not directly related to the job. It is to the credit of the program, however, that over the years that resistance has faded; today, in fact, the over-riding pressure on training is to provide more in the academic program rather than less and to retrain those who completed their course when the program was not as effective as it is today. This despite the fact that many of these trainees are badly needed on the job. The line and service organization feel that the program is relevant. With what he gets in school, the man is easier to train and work with on the job. The training in thinking and problem solving, the broad experience in speaking, reading and writing provide the employee with transferable skills which make him more flexible and mobile. Interestingly, the greatest demand is for English.

The cost is admittedly substantial. Between 1956 and 1970 the Company spent $23,484,000 on the academic training of its employees in the field, as compared to $5,690,000 for training in the Industrial Training Shops. In addition, from 1960 to 1970 the Company spent $9,375,000 on out-of-kingdom training--almost a million dollars a year. Since 1949 the Company has sent 477 employees out-of-kingdom on study assignments--and there will be another thirty-nine this year.

The program, of course, has not been without its problems and challenges. In the teaching of English, for instance, we are not dealing with people who are merely learning another language and culture--as might be the case with Frenchmen, Germans or Russians; rather, we are dealing with people whose education is of a traditional, non-western type. Our learners, whatever their association with the modern world through the Company and through the media, are still largely traditional in outlook. For the most part, they still see themselves living in a world in which they are subject to forces beyond their control, dependent upon external authority--the family, the tribe, the religion, the government, the Company. And they are inclined to think of learning as the process of committing authority to memory. The traditional relationship of teacher and student is authoritative but at the same time personal and the learning situation is characterized by passivity and dependence. This dependence is manifest in many ways, even in our own less traditional situation. Even at the top levels there are those students who feel we should teach for the test, and that the test should be a direct feedback from the book. They have difficulty following direction, especially when something new is involved; they want to stick to the old. Sometimes, when we have explained a task and set them to work, they will write a few words or lines and then come up to the desk. "Is this what you want, teacher?" There is always this business of trying to figure out not what the assignment requires but rather what will please the teacher. One of the most difficult concepts to get across is that the grade, to be meaningful, must depend upon the individual's own achievement; it is not something given to him by the teacher, and it cannot be arrived at by taking into account the student's personality, his personal problems, his personal connections and so forth.

How do we deal with these problems? I guess you could say we try to create a classroom situation--an atmosphere, perhaps--in which we become increasingly less tolerant, from year to year, of these manifestations of dependence and in which success comes to those who can stand on their own feet.

This is a gradual process, of course. It is a matter of building confidence in the learner and at the heart of this is the ability to think and solve problems. Our problem is that because of basic outlook and educational background, our trainees, when we get them, are pretty much rote learners. If they are to become effective learners and employees we must somehow un-rote them. But how? One answer--deceptively simple, perhaps--is that we discourage rote learning by not asking question, posing problems, or giving tests which permit rote answers. Furthermore, if the Director of a program ensures that his teachers do not set questions that can be answered by memorizing the passage, he forces them to change their methods of teaching.

However, if the building of thinking skills is to be effective, there must be some kind of step-by-step procedure from simple to complex skills. Now, if our English instruction materials had been produced in the field, then it would have been possible to build in this kind of thinking skill development. Our textbooks, however, are drawn from the generally familiar list of materials designed for the teaching of English as a foreign language--plus a few others we feel to be appropriate. The difficulty with so many of these materials, and especially at the higher levels, is that although they are useful in helping the learner toward a command of the language, they nevertheless assume a western or westernized learner, educated to a fairly high level in and through his own language and culture, and maybe even physically present in the United States. Although for the most part these materials require the learner to use rather sophisticated thinking skills, they don't really train him in these. To make up for this deficiency we have introduced into our curriculum some of the materials used in U.S. schools for the development of reading and thinking skills. I am referring particularly to the Science Research Associates (SRA) and the Educational Developmental Laboratories (EDL) materials, both of which offer the advantages of systematic skill development through readings which, for the most part, have adult appeal.

I think it should be clear by now that in the teaching and learning of English and in the broader aim of producing efficient Company employees, our problems are essentially cultural. In the profession today there are probably few who would deny that a true command of English requires some understanding of the English-speaking culture. But in ARAMCO mere understanding is not enough; we ask that the trainee accommodate himself in some degree to a culture in which, in effect, he is already working. If we are to be successful in this, however, we must ourselves understand his culture; we must be able to predict how, in the light of his own culture, he will react in a given situation. Let me give an example of the kind of complication that can arise. A few weeks ago we gave our students a reading comprehension quiz using a passage about Houdini--the great escape artist. The passage mentioned that Houdini was the subject of a great deal of controversy and it was suggested that his integrity was in question. It was also stated, very specifically, that for purposes of publicity Houdini actively encouraged the controversy. Yet, in answer to a question concerning his reaction to this controversy--(a) he encouraged it, (b) he defended himself, (c) he ignored it--more than half the students indicated Houdini had defended himself. When asked why they had given this answer despite the specific statement to the contrary, they answered that a man was obliged to defend his honor. One student went so far as to claim that the statement in the article must have been false. What we are faced with here is the tendency--or perhaps even compulsion--to screen out that which does not fit into the learner's own culture and to read in that which does.

Now, unless the teacher understands the nature and importance of integrity and honor in Saudi culture, he cannot understand why the students would give the wrong answer about Houdini; and he would likely admonish them for careless reading rather than recognize the true nature of his own task. On the other hand, unless the Saudi learner can grasp the importance of personal achievement in our culture and the relative willingness of the individual to subordinate the defence of personal honor to achievement goals, then the action of a Houdini in encouraging controversy reflecting on his integrity must remain incomprehensible. The point is important, for the defense of personal honor versus achievement has strong implications relating to success and advancement on the job.

For us, as teachers, it is not enough that we have some understanding of the other culture; it is imperative that we bring this understanding actively to the teaching process. I think it important that we be aware of the cultural meaning of what goes on in the teaching-learning situation. I think we should select our materials with the cultural meaning in mind. And I think that by and large we have failed in this. The failure is not ours alone by any means; I think the failure to take culture into account adequately is a failure of the profession. There has been too little definitive work in this area. It is hoped that in the future the profession will give far more serious attention to this aspect of language learning.

The ARAMCO program is not perfect, either in conception or in execution--in the content of the course or in the manner in which it is taught--and I would be misleading you if I tried to give the impression that we have created a large corps of self-starting achievers, capable of solving all problems. But neither would I want to leave you with the impression that we have not moved a long way toward fulfilling our goals. My own supervisor, when I am teaching, is a Saudi who went through our academic program, served as a teacher in this same program and was then sent out-of-kingdom for additional study before moving into his present position as Principal of the Industrial Training Center in Dhahran. I can assure you of his capability.

One aspect of the program worth mentioning is that it has the advantages of continuity and relative stability; this means we have been able to build on experience toward a stronger, more effective program. In addition, our program of study is sufficiently long--five years--to give the trainee a chance to absorb and digest the learning experience, to mature and to form thinking and study habits more in line with Company needs. If we have not always been successful, I think it is because we have not been selective enough, or because the cultural distance has been too great for some of our learners, or because we have not seen our problems as clearly as we should or been as efficient as we should.

One last word on the relationship of management and training. ARAMCO is an oil company and the business of oil companies is oil. It is perfectly understandable, I think, that management would prefer not to be in the training business at all--would be happy, in fact, to turn training over to an outside organization. Yet ARAMCO management has not shirked its responsibilities. In a spirit of enlightened self-interest it has in fact gone far beyond its obligations under the concession agreement in order to give the Saudi the kind of training he needs, he wants, he deserves.

PLANNING A TEFL PROGRAM: A CASE STUDY

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Introduction

At the Technical and Vocational Schools in Zgharta, Lebanon, English has been the medium of instruction since December 1970. Seven of the instructors in the schools knew practically no English ten months prior to conducting their first real class in English. They and four others were selected by the Directorate of Technical and Vocational Schools (TVS) to take an intensive course in English which would prepare them for the opening of the new school in Zgharta. The three parties involved in initiating, planning and executing this project were the Ford Foundation (FF) as the sponsor, the Directorate of Technical and Vocational Schools (TVS) as the consumer, and the English Language Institute (ELI) of the American University in Cairo (AUC) as the supplier.

Description of the Project

The initial negotiations for the project started in July 1968 when Mr. Harvey Hall of the Ford Foundation in Beirut asked me two questions, to both of which I gave tentative and conditional but nevertheless affirmative answers. Insofar as I remember them, the questions were:

1) Is it possible to teach enough English to a group of experienced teachers, whose English proficiency is almost nil, to enable them after one year of language instruction to teach their own subjects in English?
2) Would the English Language Institute of AUC be interested in undertaking such a project?

Between August and December details of the program and the budget were worked out between myself, the Ford Foundation and administrative officers of the Technical and Vocational Schools. In the final project we had eleven participants in a single class. Two teachers were assigned to the project, each of whom met with the participants for sixteen hours per week, making a total of thirty-two hours. The classes began on February 3, 1969, and ended in January 1970 with a total of two months break during the year.

The Technical School provided lodging for the teachers as well as for the supervisor whenever supervisory trips were made. Of course, TVS also provided all necessary physical facilities, furniture and equipment. Books and tapes were provided by AUC.

The cost of the project, other than the contribution of TVS, came to approximately $17.50 per class hour or less than $1.60

per student hour.

The final report on each student showed that nine of them were considered quite capable of teaching their own subjects in English, while the other two were considered borderline cases.

In March 1971, a follow-up trip to Tripoli and Zgharta where these participants are now working revealed the following:

1) Seven of them are still teaching in the Zgharta school.
2) One has an administrative capacity in the same school.
3) One of the seven who are teaching in the Zgharta school was one of the two borderline cases. His performance, however, was quite satisfactory.
4) The other three are teaching in French-medium schools for personal reasons.
5) One of the former teachers in the project and I, as the former Director of ELI/AUC, visited several classes to observe the performance of the teachers. Afterwards we held a conference with the teachers at which we heard a well-justified plea for a refresher course which would enable them to at least retain their present proficiency level.

Planning

I believe an elaboration of the major activities in preparing for the project may prove useful in future planning.

A. Developing the program

Fortunately, in the case of this project the "terminal behavior" of the participants was determined in advance. They were to be able to teach their own subjects in English beginning the tenth month of the project. For this particular group of students, whose English proficiency was practically nil, this meant the development of at least the following skills:

1) They had to be able to speak to their students.
2) In preparation for their lessons, they needed to read technical books.
3) They needed to become familiar with classroom expressions such as "homework," "erase the blackboard," "grades," etc.
4) Before they could devote specific attention to their narrow field of interest, however, they had to be able to develop a certain level of general proficiency so that they might be able to engage in more advanced activities using English.

For these reasons the year was divided into four periods, each representing a stage of development with a specific goal leading up to the terminal behavior and its refinement. These periods and their goals were as follows:

Stage 1, four months (February-May)

The goal of this stage was to develop general proficiency. For this purpose major emphasis was placed on spoken English and informal situations in which the participants had the opportunity to use in a natural setting, the English they had learned in class. In terms of methods of formal language teaching, drills and language laboratory were used regularly for both comprehension and production.

Stage 2, two months (June 15-August 15)

A two-week vacation separated the first two stages as the first stage was expected to be quite taxing both to the participants and to the teachers. During the second stage, three goals guided the activities of the program:

1) To give the participants a complete course in English grammar

(this task actually started toward the middle of the first stage).

2) To emphasize technical vocabulary.
3) To enable the participants to be conversant in their fields in English.

Plans for field trips to industrial plants suffered greatly owing to certain internal problems, but the teaching of the necessary grammar and technical vocabulary yielded the desired results.

Stage 3, one month (September 1-30)

Primary emphasis during this period was to be placed on teaching classroom expressions. Situational teaching, therefore, was considered to be most appropriate for achieving this goal. Various members of the class prepared sample lessons which they expected to use later with their real students. These lessons were taught in simulated situations with the other participants posing as students. Minor emphasis was placed on English grammar and technical vocabulary.

Stage 4, three months (October-December)

The primary goal of this stage was to refine the participants' performance in English. Their teachers were to help them prepare their daily lesson plans. Then the teachers were to observe their performance in class as they taught the lessons. This observation was to be followed by individual as well as group conferences to discuss problems and correct specific mistakes. Unfortunately, due to circumstances beyond our control, this period had to be condensed into only one month (January 1970) with less than satisfactory results. Nevertheless, the basic plan for this stage, as outlined above, was carried out under simulated conditions during October-December in Beirut.

B. Recruiting Teachers

We decided to focus most carefully on four major elements in the program. These were the selection of the teachers, the selection of textbooks, the selection and application of methods and the supervision of the program. In this frame of reference, therefore, the recruitment of teachers was given top priority.

In recruiting teachers we tried to look for the following features:

1) His professional qualifications had to include his ability not only to teach lessons out of a textbook effectively, but also to be able to modify the material on hand whenever necessary.
2) In his personal qualifications, in addition to the usual features, we looked for his ability to relate to others easily and effectively. Furthermore, he had to be genuinely interested in making a success of the project. This called for a person with a high sense of professional responsibility.
3) We looked for teachers who were genuinely interested in the students' cultural traits.
4) Since informal activities and field trips were to be an integral part of the program, we looked for teachers who could devote adequate time to these activities.
5) Considering the wide range of the linguistic needs of the participants, we looked for teachers capable of teaching both elementary and advanced levels.
6) Anticipating the need for some counseling as well as considering the very low level of the students' proficiency, we

looked for teachers who could speak with the students in their own language if, and only if, it was absolutely necessary.

7) Naturally, we looked for teachers who could work together as a team.

8) Since we were dealing with an all male class of participants within an all male campus setting, we made sure that at least one of the two teachers was male.

C. Determining Goals

In setting goals for each stage as well as for terminal behavior, the following guidelines were considered:

1) The need of the consumer (TVS), which was clear in this case but may not be as clear in other cases. The fact remains, however, that the more precise the goal the greater the chances of attaining it.

2) The motivation of the student, which was considered very important. Fortunately, in the case of this project, the students were very highly motivated as they felt that their future depended largely upon their success in the improvement of their English proficiency. For this reason it is important to make sure that the student is somehow remunerated for improving his proficiency in English. This remuneration may take the form of a trip abroad, priority for promotion, a raise in salary or something else.

3) The goals were considered attainable in the light of the length of time allotted to the project, the availability of sufficient and qualified manpower to do the job, the availability of appropriate and adequate physical and environmental

facilities to ensure reasonable success of the project and the availability of adequate time and personnel for the supervision of the program.

D. Selecting Textbooks

In selecting textbooks the following questions were considered important:

1) Does it contribute to the attainment of the goals set both for the immediate stage and for the terminal behavior?
2) Does the teacher approve of it as an appropriate text which he can use effectively?
3) Does it develop the linguistic skills and cultural understanding necessary for the success of the program?
4) Is it compatible with the best known principles of language teaching?
5) Is it sufficiently self-contained to reduce or even eliminate the need for making supplementary material?
6) Is it appropriate for the student's level of proficiency?

Supervision

While advanced planning, careful selection of teachers and textbooks and emphasis on contextual orientation proved to be very helpful, close supervision was considered extremely important in directing the activities toward the predetermined goals.

In this project supervisory guidance was offered in two ways. We were fortunate to have a representative of the Ford Foundation devoting considerable time to this program. Dr. Lewis Land not only counseled the administrative officers of TVS, he also visited our classes quite regularly and gave helpful assistance to our teachers.

The second type of supervision was offered by frequent visits by the Director of the English Language Institute of the American University in Cairo. The primary purpose of these visits was not to check up on the teachers; careful screening had already resulted in recruiting responsible teachers. Rather, in these visits we held conferences with the teachers, the participants and the consumers to see what changes in our interim goals and/or our planned activities were desirable to reach those goals. Throughout the entire project we remained flexible to allow the many changes in our program, both major and minor, which were deemed necessary for effective teaching.

Guidelines for Planning a TEFL Program

On the basis of the deductions which could be made from the "Tripoli Project" and the insights which I have gained from developing and executing several other projects, I believe the following points should be taken into consideration by both consumers and suppliers in planning and administering a TEFL program:

A. Preliminary Discussions
  1) Start as early as possible.
  2) Discuss it with as many interested and qualified persons as convenient.
  3) Seek the counsel of a competent person in ascertaining your need as well as in finding the best way of meeting it.

B. Planning for the Program
  1) Strive for mutual understanding and appreciation between consumer and supplier:
    a. By providing an atmosphere for mutual education.

   b. By developing mutual respect for each other's institutional policies and limitations.
   c. By showing genuine interest in each other's goals, aspirations and problems.

2) Assuming that the supplier is primarily responsible for the development of the plan, he should gain the support of the consumer:
   a. By keeping the line of communication with the consumer constantly open.
   b. By involving the consumer in the planning of the program insofar as possible.
   c. By respecting the consumer's opinions and suggestions whenever they contribute to the improvement of the program.

C. Preparation for Administering the Program

1) Screening the students for admission into the program. This is best done by the consumer.
2) Screening the admitted students for placement in levels and classes. This is done by the supplier.
3) Recruiting teachers.
4) Selecting textbooks.
5) Preparing physical facilities including classrooms, space and equipment for the use of audio-visual aids, and space and facilities for informal activities such as dining, recreation and so forth.
6) Procuring books and teaching aids, and providing for proper operation of the equipment. It is necessary to order books and other materials far enough in advance so

that they will be on hand before the actual program begins.

7) Establishing goals which will lead to the desired terminal behavior of the students.
8) Establishing closely coordinated steps leading to designated goals.
9) Determining the number of hours for each type of educational activity, such as formal classwork, use of teaching aids, and informal teaching situations.
10) Planning for breaks for both students and teachers. These breaks need to be compatible with the policies of the institutions involved, the length of each session or semester, the season, the national and religious holidays of the country and the linguistic needs of the students.
11) Determining the manner and frequency of supervision.
12) Providing for necessary secretarial assistance together with duplicating facilities if needed.

D. Administration of the Program

The following factors should be considered important in administering a TEFL program:

1) Cooperation between consumer and supplier.
2) Constant evaluation of instructional activities to ensure a steady progress toward set goals and the terminal behavior.
3) Respect for the opinion of the teachers who are in immediate contact with the students.
4) Involvement of the consumer institution insofar as possible.

5) Complete flexibility in applying the best available means and methods of language teaching even if it means major changes in the previously planned program.

6) Motivation of the students.

7) Motivation and dedication of the teaching and administrative staff.

8) Satisfaction and comfort of the teachers in terms of the perquisites they receive, the moral support given to them and the atmosphere in which they work.

E. Supervision

1) Conferences with the teachers to discover the degree of their satisfaction with the textbooks, the teaching aids, the attitude of the students, the cooperation of the consumer; and to discuss specific problems.

2) Conferences with the students to discover their progress, their feeling about the textbooks, about the teachers, about the teaching aids, about the methods and about informal activities as a part of the language teaching program.

3) Conferences with the consumer to discover his interest in the program, the degree of his involvement in the program, his impressions about the program and his suggestions for needed improvements.

4) Every supervisory mission should include class visitations and conferences with the teachers regarding the teaching activities.

5) Periodic testing of the students' proficiency should be a part of the supervisory activities. The results of

these tests are necessary not only for submitting reports but also for checking student progress.

6) The supervisor should consider himself an integral part of the program, and therefore should get as close to the students as he can. This attitude will create an informal atmosphere which will encourage the students as well as the teachers to discuss their problems with the supervisor.

F. Follow-up

Periodic follow-up should be considered a necessity if lasting results are desired from a TEFL program. This is particularly true in the Middle East where English is usually used in a non-English speaking society. Areas of concern in a follow-up should include:

1) A test of English proficiency to determine the degree of its improvement or decline.
2) An examination of means by which the alumni continue to improve their English.
3) An examination of their responsibilities to see if their English is suited for the job.
4) Recommendations by the follow-up team on how the alumni should improve their English proficiency.

The involvement with "The Tripoli Project" has been a rich and gratifying experience for me personally. It has taught me much about what can or cannot be done in a specific TEFL project. In this paper I have tried to share only the highlights of the project with you.

6

A CHALLENGING PROJECT

ROBERT J. SULLIVAN
CPM, DHAHRAN, SAUDI ARABIA

In planning this conference, one of our main purposes was to bring about a coordination of effort and a pooling of the professional skills available in the various programs in the area. Our hope was that this would work to the mutual benefit of both consumers and specialists. Personally, I am most grateful for the opportunity to participate in this conference--it has been a most rewarding and enlightening experience. However, as the years move on, the more convinced I become that, in any given field, we can hardly expect a specialist to have all the answers. He does perhaps develop a keener appreciation of the problems and he strives to bring his skill and experience to bear on their solutions. Speaking for myself, I can say that I have plenty of problems in my work and by no means all the answers. But perhaps a sharing of some of my experiences with you will put us in a better position to solve some of the problems that face us all.

I came to the College of Petroleum and Minerals (CPM), in Dhahran, Saudi Arabia, two years ago as Director of the English Language Institute. Previous to that I had spent twenty-six years, from 1943 to 1969, in Baghdad, Iraq. During that time, except for the nine years when I acted as principal, I taught English to Iraqi students on the intermediate and secondary levels. I also had the good fortune to assist the Iraqi Ministry of Education in conducting an in-service training program for government school teachers of English. These teachers were later used in an experimental program in government intermediate schools and taught English according to modern linguistic methods. Then, six years ago, I was asked to set up and supervise the English language program which is still operating in the Institute of Public Administration in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

With this background, then, I came to Dhahran in June 1969. The College of Petroleum and Minerals is a young institution and in many respects it is still in the pioneering stage. At its inception, and for very practical reasons, the decision was made to use English as the medium of instruction for the college courses. This necessitated the setting up of a Preparatory Year in which the main purpose was to provide training in English for the Saudi secondary school graduates. Although the records show that these students had been given previous training in English, the fact was that their knowledge of English was very weak and certainly insufficient to enable them to pursue studies on the college level. This situation has unfortunately continued; the results of the tests I gave incoming students in the past two years revealed that only about ten per cent had even a rudimentary knowledge of English and very little ability to communicate. They had to be regarded, then, practically as beginners--this was the first challenge.

It seems obvious that in planning a program the first step must be to determine the objective; only after that is clearly defined can we decide on the most efficient means to achieve this objective. In practice, however, this procedure is not always followed out; you yourselves know of cases where texts and even a language lab have been provided, and then the question is asked, "Now, what do we do with them?" At CPM, given the concrete circumstances, our objective is to lead our students from the beginning stages of English up to the level of proficiency which will enable them to follow courses given in English in the College. This is the challenge we face: how do we meet it?

First of all there is the problem of recruiting competent teachers. With an enrollment in the Preparatory Year of 165 students, and with fifteen students to a section, eleven teachers are needed as a minimum. My experience has convinced me that with the exacting demands of a properly taught language program a good teacher works most efficiently and productively with a teaching load of not more than 20 hours a week. Hence the need for at least eleven teachers. I choose to speak of the teaching staff first, because the most important single element in the program is the teacher. I am convinced that the success or failure of a properly designed program depends primarily on the teachers. It has been pointed out time and again that effective language teaching today involves the practical application of linguistic and pedagogical principles and techniques by professionally trained personnel. Yet this fundamental truth has often been disregarded, with the result that programs either fail or do not produce the results desired.

There is a distinct advantage in having native English speakers as teachers, but, as Lado and others have pointed out, this is not sufficient. Training in the essentials of good teaching is necessary, and over and above this, training which enables the individual to utilize the findings of modern linguistic science. These are the qualifications we require at CPM--successful teaching experience and preferably a Masters in TEFL. Recruiting properly qualified teachers from such a distance as Dhahran is not an easy matter, and in my opinion it is made more difficult by the complicated machinery for recruiting imposed by the College. Unfortunately the field from which we can choose is substantially limited by the fact that we are not permitted to employ women, but this is a restriction we have to live with. We recruit teachers from both the States and Britain. For candidates in the States I send out announcements to department heads or personal friends in various universities, and also run an announcement in TESOL. In England, the British Council is helping us this year to recruit, and after this conference I plan to go to London to interview candidates they have contacted. I feel it is quite important that the director of a program should himself make the selection of the teachers he is going to work with, and this as a result of personal interviews.

For the men who do meet our qualifications and who are accepted on our staff, my experience has demonstrated the advisability and even necessity of giving some cultural orientation to those who are starting to work in an unfamiliar environment. They can do a much more effective job, avoid many mistakes and, at the same time, live more happily if they have a knowledge of the customs and ways of life of the people with whom they work. They will find it a great advantage, of course, in their teaching, if they are able to use materials which were developed specifically for the people of this culture.

So the next point I would like to take up (and this is a further challenge) is the matter of materials. At CPM, for the first eight weeks, we use materials which were specially prepared for our students. The text is called Presenting English and it is designed to aid students to acquire some of the solid foundation they must have as the basis for ultimate proficiency in the use of English. This text is based on materials which we first prepared in Baghdad and then used and re-worked over a period of eight years, and which were adapted for use in the Institute of Public Administration in Riyadh. They provide for three hours of classroom instruction daily, and one hour in the language lab, five days a week, for a total of twenty hours. They are severely graded and carefully organized, and constant review is built into them. They also give special consideration and emphasis to those points in the phonological and structural systems which constitute "problems" for Arabic-speaking students --problems arising from the fixed habits of their native language which interfere with their attempts to learn English.

After completing Presenting English we move on to further materials which we developed in Baghdad for Arabic-speaking students. For the first part of the course about eighty per cent of the emphasis is on developing the skills of listening and speaking; after the first semester there is a gradual shift of emphasis to the skills of reading and writing. We hope ultimately to develop a complete set of materials specifically for our work at CPM, but until that time I feel that we do have materials that are graded, coordinated and logically developed--and they have proven effective.

All these materials that we are using have instructions for the teacher incorporated into the text--again, experience has shown that when a special Handbook for Teachers is provided, it is seldom used. A definite time schedule is set up for each class and lab session, requiring that a definite pace be maintained, so as to insure an efficient use of the efforts of teacher and student in pursuing the objective of the program. Far from finding these instructions or the time schedule a check on their initiative or inventiveness, teachers have expressed their gratification at being able to work within such a definite framework.

It is my opinion that, apart from an untrained staff, another reason why some programs do not meet expectations is that the materials used are not coordinated, but consist rather of an unconsidered collection of books available on the commerical market. One of my hopes for this conference is that we will be able to get together and unite our efforts to produce a set of materials that will utilize the excellent professional skill that is present in the area.

At CPM all the students are now required to take four hours of

English daily during the first semester of the preparatory year along with four hours weekly of math and two of shop. Previously, time given to English was less and the students also had to attend classes in physics and chemistry. This did not work out very satisfactorily and students finished the Preparatory Year without being properly qualified in any of the subjects they studied, least of all in English. My argument to the Administration was that since the students had to get English as a tool to be used in the College, we had to concentrate on that, and so the present arrangement was agreed upon. For the second semester, however, the Administration insisted that a certain percentage of the students should drop one hour daily of English and take up physics and chemistry. I protested this decision since I am convinced the students need to devote their full efforts to a mastery of English and should not diffuse their energies over a wider area during this critical year. This is a problem that will have to be resolved when we evaluate the results of this year's work.

To enable us to achieve our objective of leading students to a proficiency in English and thus prepare them for their work in the College, we find it necessary at the same time to lay stress on developing other related skills. We have to guide the students in the acquisition of proper study habits. They have to be taught how to study and how to use their time efficiently. They have to be weaned away from the idea that the learning process is pure memorization. They must be trained to think, to see the relations between things which are objectively connected, to apply a general truth to concrete situations. They have to be brought to see the need for concentration and application in their work. They must be trained in the habits of neatness and accuracy and in the need for promptness in fulfilling their assignments. The development of these and similar skills in the student again points to the need for a teacher who is himself not only dedicated but equipped with sound pedagogical principles and a working, practical psychology.

Our situation at CPM also poses a special problem in the matter of student motivation. Many of the students are highly motivated; they want to take full advantage of the wonderful opportunity the College offers them; they know they have to master English, so they work hard at it and they succeed. But there are others who do not have this appreciation and the number is sufficiently large to constitute a real problem. Once a student has been accepted, he pays no tuition or board while he lives at the College; in fact, he receives a monthly stipend to cover small expenses. I feel there is a need for the student to have some personal stake in the learning process. If he were required to put something into it himself, I believe he would be more serious about studying and that his level of work would be higher. He, or at least his parents, would be putting an investment into his education, and this would spur him on to greater effort.

Then there is the matter of the requirements for a student to pass from the Preparatory Year to the first year of College. In view of the absolute necessity for a student to be proficient in English in order to do College work, it should be a matter of very clearly defined policy that he will not be admitted to the College unless he attains this proficiency in the Preparatory Year.

If he knows that this will be the case, he will use his abilities and strive for a mastery of English. If, on the contrary, he is aware that lack of skill in English will not prevent him from being accepted in the College, it is doubtful if he will put forth his best efforts. Now, at CPM, this matter of requirements for the College has not been very clearly defined, and I feel that for this reason our English program is seriously weakened. Last year, some students who failed English actually were dismissed from the Preparatory Year at the end of the second semester, but others were allowed to enter the College. As long as this situation prevails, human nature being what it is, there will always be some students who will take a chance on getting by. A language program, to be truly effective, must have sanctions built into it. It is my intention to continue to insist that the Administration formulate a definite policy in this regard.

As you can see from the picture I have tried to present, our situation at CPM is not without its problems; it is certainly a challenging project. We have, I think, achieved a fair amount of success--success as defined on the first day of our conference; we have prepared our students not for an exam but to be able to use the language in College. Professors in the present Freshman year are satisfied with the English proficiency of their students, whom the Institute certified as admissible to College; they are able to follow and benefit from the courses in General Science, Engineering Science and Applied Engineering. This being so, we have accomplished what we set out to do; we have obtained our objective.

To complete the picture of our work at CPM, I must add just a few words on an extension of the program of the Language Institute. In response to numerous requests, we began in February 1971 to offer English courses to adults working in various government and business agencies in Khobar, Dhahran and Dammam, and also to workmen at the College. These courses are given at the College in the late afternoon. The number of applicants has far exceeded our ability to take care of all of them. It has been inspiring and encouraging to see the enthusiasm of these men in their efforts to learn English. In offering this program in Continuing Education, the College is endeavoring to supply a long-felt need in the area, and we have been literally deluged with requests for further English courses when the present session is completed.

I would like to end this brief presentation on a note of hope and encouragement. There is no magic key which opens the door to the solution of all our problems. However, by means of the interest and the promise of cooperation evoked by this conference, I feel we have taken one very big step towards hastening the day when many of the problems we now face can be solved by our mutual efforts.

EVALUATING A TEFL PROGRAM

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Introduction

Most of us have come to this conference because we are interested in the teaching of English to people who do not speak it as a mother tongue. Those of us who are only watching from the sidelines, unless they are anthropologists, perhaps never realize that much more is involved than a classroom and some dusty books. Those of us who are in the job professionally tend to forget that what they are doing may be something sociologically quite dangerous. Neither group should lose sight of the fact that a TEFL program is an attempt to change an aspect of human behaviour. We are consciously interfering with the natural communications environment. Any day now the ecologists may be breathing down the necks of the TEFL teachers and muttering darkly about linguistic fall-out, language pollution and the necessity for recycling the waste products of bilingualism.

In discussing this morning's topic, the evaluation of TEFL programs, we would do well to keep all this in mind. We are bound, eventually, to face the necessity of evaluating far more than whether the engineers can read or the *fonctionnaire* can spell. We have, in the end, to answer for what we have done to people and to speech communities.

Language Policy: Past Experience and Present Responsibility

I am a newcomer to the Arab World and know very little of its needs or resources. Indeed, I would not presume to speak at all at this gathering were it not for the fact, both sombre and encouraging, that many of man's problems have a reassuring similarity the world over. They have also a depressing tendency to recur throughout the ages. Perhaps I may draw some parallels.

For example, it is now a little after nine o'clock on the morning of May the fourth. The sky is cloudless, but all is not well with the world. On this same morning, May the fourth, at this same time, 173 years ago and 2000 miles away, on the fortress island of Shrirangapatnam, in the valley of the Cauvery River in South India, the sky was also cloudless and the morning gentle, and all was not well with the world. Bonaparte was in Egypt. French troops were in India, and the last great struggle between the British and Tipoo Sultan was taking place. Tipoo was brave, cruel, noble, treacherous, a patriot or a rebel, a popular liberator or a foreign lackey, depending on which side the speaker was on. Shrirangapatnam had withstood siege for years, but on this fine May morning at just about this time the troops of General Wellesley broke through the walls and rushed along the ramparts to the Delhi Gate.

Tipoo, surprised, threw himself into the battle, was wounded, and lay under the shadow of the wall unable to move. A common British soldier caught the glint of jewels from the rich sword hilt in Tipoo's belt and reached for it. Tipoo tried to explain who he was, his rank, his authority, and his right to respectful treatment. However, Tipoo did not speak English and the soldier did not speak Urdu. Communication broke down. There was a rapid scuffle. The soldier lunged forwards, once and once again, and the empire of Tipoo Sultan came to an inglorious end under the broken ramparts as the sun mounted higher and the heat began to beat down on the sweating, but victorious, troops of Wellesley.

One of Wellesley's first problems was that of communication. The Indians, even the rulers, spoke little English. His own Indian troops spoke even less. Which should he do, teach them English or have his British officers learn the language of the men they commanded? He, and the army for the rest of its two centuries in India, chose the latter course. A form of Urdu became the lingua franca, the obligatory homework and the distinctive mark of the British Officer. It worked fairly well. The army was a mixed and mobile organization, and needed a common language. And, insofar as India ever had one, that was Urdu.

But, in the Civil Service, that magnificent bureaucratic obsession, the heavy golden chain of command which the British hung around the neck of the country, Urdu would not do. The majority of the Civil Service personnel were stationary, and the regional languages--more than a dozen of them--clamoured for adoption: Bengali in Calcutta, Tamil in the Madras Presidency, and so on from Cormorin to Kashmir.

Thomas Babington Macaulay, the English historian, was made a member of the Supreme Council of India and asked to advise on a language policy. The result was the famous Macaulay minute of 1835 in which, with the delightful arrogance and prejudice for which he was famous, he argued in favour of teaching everyone English: English Philosophy, English Science and, above all, the English language.

> Whoever knows. . ./English/. . .has ready access to all the vast intellectual wealth which all the wisest nations of the earth have created and hoarded in the course of ninety generations. . .It is likely to become the language of commerce throughout the seas of the East. It is the language of two great European communities which are rising, the one in the South of Africa, the other in Australasia. . .The question now before us is simply whether, when it is in our power to teach this language, we shall teach /Instead, other/ languages in which, by universal confession, there are no books on any subject which deserve to be compared to our own. . .medical doctrines which would disgrace an English farrier--astronomy which would move laughter in the girls of an English boarding school--history abounding with kings thirty feet high, and reigns thirty thousand years long--and geography made up of seas of treacle and seas of butter.
>
> The languages of Western Europe civilized Russia. I cannot doubt that they will do for the Hindoo what they have done for the Tartar.

Macaulay's minute was received in England as might have been the voice of God. The machinery was set in motion for the universal teaching of English in order to provide, as Macaulay would have said, a key to the treasury of the West; as Tagore did say, "a window on the world," and, as the more cynical knew, a babu class who could mediate between British authority and local custom.

One hundred and twelve years later, on the eve of India's independence in 1947, Macaulay's dream had largely come true. The country ran on English. The railroads, the air force, the parliament, postal system and more were English-medium institutions. But with Independence came Pandit Nehru's reluctant decision that Hindi should become the national language and that the use of the many regional languages should be encouraged. Approximately twenty years were allowed for this changeover (or, as some would say, "change back") to take place. That was in 1947.

The twenty years are past and gone and the scheduled reversal of the historical process has not worked. True, English has been discredited and its use discouraged, but neither Hindi nor the regional languages have taken its place. Only after the twenty years were ended did the Government of India set up the National Institute of Indian Languages to implement the 1947 decision. It was set up at Mysore, ironically almost within sight of the place where Tipoo Sultan and the soldier glowered at each other, at a loss for words. And it was on this same day last year, though rather earlier in the morning, that I, a teacher of English, was asked to give the opening lecture of the Summer Institute--on the teaching of Indian languages to adult learners. What would Wellesley have said? What would Macaulay have said? What would Nehru have said?

The Importance of Evaluation

If we have taken this rather roundabout path to come at our subject of the evaluation of TEFL programs, it is because I wanted to enlist your sympathy before complaining that we educators are usually the worst learners. The one thing that we learn from history is that we do not learn from history. Experience teaches us that experience does not teach us.

The world is littered with the casualities of irresponsible language policy decisions. The slaughter would have been reduced if those responsible had but looked at the experience of others before launching out into massive schemes dependent upon the foolish dream that one can legislate about the nature of man. The sorrows and failures could further have been mitigated if an effective evaluation procedure had been set up to ask: first, if what was decided was reasonable; second, if it was possible within the existing resources of the given situation; and later, what, if anything, was being achieved.

In my own country of origin, Ireland, we have been through the turmoil of a national language revival where, for many years, the school children were obliged to learn a language which neither their parents used nor their progeny were likely to use. Again, in Greece today two boys will sit side by side for six hours a week learning to write a more classical form of the language, foreign to both of them and to the educated homes of the country, so that when they grow to be men they can write official correspondence to each other in it. If there are parallels in the Arab world you will know them better than I do.

My first point, therefore, is that we should begin by evaluating the reasonableness of our intentions. It is not reasonable, for example, to expect technicians in an Arab country to develop the same kind of skills in English as those which will be developed by Arabic-speaking students studying in an English-speaking country. Only those language skills can be taught and maintained which the society concerned will need and use. Wherever in the world we look, interference in the language habits of a community is a serious matter. We must evaluate what we are doing quite apart from how well we are doing it. To meddle without an effective technique for evaluation in this wide sense of the word is irresponsible.

Focus in Evaluation

In evaluating any attempt to change a linguistic situation--whether it be a change in the mother tongue or in the imposition of a measure of second language usage--possibly the most important question to ask is whether the program is founded upon the experience of other places and other times, or whether it has been created, albeit intelligently and by intelligent people, in a vacuum. Language is a by-product of society. It is situations, not curricula, which create speech communities.

Here, obviously, is one of the great merits of a conference like the present one. We have here today a collection of people whose joint experience must, surely, cover every major part of the field. To the question of how to evaluate a TEFL program, a first and probably final and satisfactory answer would be to tell the rest of this group about the program in question and then listen receptively to the reactions. The judgements will almost always be right though the reasons behind them may, as often as not, be wrong.

But this morning we are concerned with describing some more practical means of evaluating a TEFL program than calling a conference to do the job. We need something less cumbersome for determining whether a program is a good one or not. I propose that we focus on three things. We will ask first what the evaluating instrument should be, that is to say, to whom or to what the job of evaluating a program should be entrusted. Next we will want to be clear about the subject of the evaluation--what, or who, exactly, is being evaluated. Finally we might look at some guidelines for carrying out the evaluation itself.

The Evaluating Instrument

It has been fashionable for some time now, when a specialized piece of work is to be carried out, to call in an "expert," whatever sort of animal that may prove to be. An expert is a slippery character to define. At best he is someone who knows some of the answers and most of the questions. At worst he is someone who knows slightly more than those who apply the name to him. The expert is sometimes helpful, usually disruptive, and always expensive. One is tempted to concur with the cynical folk etymology and say that *ex* means "a has been," or possibly "an *x*, or unknown quantity," and a *spurt* is a small production resulting from considerable pressure. Evaluations by experts have their advantages. Francis Bacon used to say that a friend can do many things for a man that the man cannot do for himself, such as sing his praises, guarantee his good birth, go bail for his credit and the like. In the same way an expert can be used to say the kind of thing which everyone on the job knows, but which nobody has the immunity or the detachment to say in public.

Sometimes this detachment is useful. The expert visitor can see the things which are too big for the residents to see--not only the trees, not only the wood, but also the ground below and the winds above which are eroding the forest quicker than it can grow. Above all, he knows, or should know, what to look for.

An old and probably mythical computer story concerns the expert who was called in to restore sanity to an IBM 1620 which, however programmed, resolutely printed out gobbledegook. The expert, after listening to an account of the symptoms, went into the room, made a chalk mark on the side of the core storage unit, and kicked it sharply. Instant success resulted. The surprise of the university which owned it was exceeded only by its astonishment when the expert's bill arrived for five hundred and eleven pounds. The Comptroller returned the bill asking that it be itemized. The reply came back promptly: "For kicking one computer: One Pound. For knowing how to kick one computer: Ten Pounds. For knowing where to kick one computer: Five Hundred Pounds." The expert in evaluation will, one hopes, know the where and the how. If not, one would do better to kick for oneself.

This brings us to the second type of evaluation instrument, the internal self-assessment. In this operation the staff of the program concerned make an attempt, through the application of hopefully objective guidelines, to weigh up their activities and achievements. There are two characteristics of a self-evaluation. The first point is that it is the staff who run the program--not the agency that funds it, not the students who go through it, but the program staff alone who carry out the task. If they choose, as they often do, to have an outside opinion, an expert or a representative of the consumer of another program, that is their prerogative, as it is also their prerogative to dispense with the expert's services or ignore his comments if they so choose. The second point is that self-evaluations are usually profitable only if some sort of externally provided checklist is used to guide attention to what should be evaluated. We will concern ourselves with this sort of thing in a few minutes.

A third type of evaluation technique, or possibly a subspecies of one of the others, is the questionnaire and all its verbose relations--the opinionnaire, the poll, the guesstimate and the rest. Here again it is clear that not only must the questions be the right ones, but the methods made available for recording the answers must be satisfactory. In brief parody, a question such as "How successful was the treatment given by Dr. X?" should not have, as the only possible answers,

(a) Extremely successful.

(b) Very successful.

(c) Sufficiently successful.

(d) Barely successful.

There should be some means of recording a disastrous failure as such. If the patient is dead he has a right to be notified.

The last, and probably most common, approach to evaluation is reflected in the phrase "Let the results speak for themselves." There is a specious objectivity about this attitude. Results do not speak, either for themselves or for their causes. Even if they did, someone would still have to listen and interpret. Yet the by-their-fruits-shall-ye-know-them type of study has gained sufficient popularity in this age to have acquired a name of its own: it is called "an administrative study" in the textbooks. It is an executive's assessment in terms of money spent and results obtained. A program is regarded as a kind of black box into which resources are fed and out of which emerge, admittedly some time later, trained personnel.

The weakness of allowing the results to speak for themselves can be illustrated by a conversation which I had with an old man a few years ago. He was standing outside of his cottage, next to a tree heavy with pears which looked ripe and healthy. He insisted that the tree was a rotten one. I tried the fruit; it was firm and sweet. I looked for red ants, fungus, leaf decay, parasites and saprophites. None. "That tree is a rotten tree," he explained. "When I bought it it was meant to be an apple tree." Fine fruit, but the wrong ones.

The Subject of the Evaluation

This brings us conveniently to the second consideration: what exactly is it that is to be evaluated by the expert, the internal assessment committee, the questionnaire or the administrative study? My opinion, in a nutshell, is that the only thing worth evaluating is the extent to which the program has achieved the objectives for which it was created. My old friend was dissatisfied with his tree because, although it was doing splendidly in its own way, it was a disaster in his.

Surprisingly enough, it is in failing to derive and state objectives efficiently that many programs come to grief before they start. Unless a perfectly clear and sufficient formulation of purpose is available to those who have to implement a program, they have precious little chance of success, except by accident. This sad fate of so many organizations is seldom apparent because the cause is also the protective covering. If an arrow is not aimed at a target, the marksman cannot be blamed for missing the bullseye. One is forced to evaluate his skill in other, and possibly irrelevant, dimensions, such as the weight of the bow which he can carry and the distance, rather than the direction, of his shots. A friend of mine who operated a language laboratory, on being pressed to evaluate the work of the unit, reported that it had produced 2.56 kilometers of recorded tape. His supervisor did not even ask what speed it ran at, far less what its purpose was. Quantity was sufficient; direction irrelevant.

When questioned, those involved in TEFL programs often have a curious way of identifying directions, of stating their aims. If they are teachers they tend to speak of the items they hope to teach. Students, on the other hand, talk about improving their English. Administrators speak of covering X units in Y contact hours.

"Covering X units" is a hopelessly inadequate statement of purpose, in that it refers only to whole classes and takes little account of the different individuals within the groups. And when, for that matter, is a unit "covered"? Is it when most of the class know it all, or when all of the class know most of it? And what is "knowing" a language feature? Remembering it for a test? Comprehending it for a year? Or being able to use it for a lifetime?

Objectives stated in terms of what the teacher hopes to do are also weak. I had, many years ago, the privilege of studying under C.L. Wrenn, the Old English scholar, at Oxford. He was almost totally blind and very deaf. On one occasion he stumbled into the lecture hall, mounted the dais, and got through a commentary on fifteen lines of Beowulf before one of the porters came and led him out of the empty lecture hall into the correct one where his students had been waiting. He had done things. He had even taught a measurable quantity of the poem, but nobody had learned.

The student who says his objective is to improve his English has a more manageable aim, but it is one which is still far too vague for efficient implementation or satisfactory evaluation.

As an unreformed behaviourist, I believe that the most satisfactory statement of objectives in TEFL teaching is one couched in terms of what it is that the student should be able to do at the end of the program which he could not at the beginning. The accent is on the word do, not know how to do.

From the point of view of the sponsor of a program, the desired student behaviour may be stated in simple pragmatic terms. A bank, for example, teaching English to its employees, might reasonably hope that at the end of the course the employee should be able to cope with a customer who presents a cheque for cashing when there are insufficient funds in the drawer's account. The bank, naturally, will be interested in the total behaviour of the employee. He should be able to read the cheque, notice the overdraft, send the customer away satisfied, notify the drawer, and all of this within the limitations and procedures specified by the bank regulations. The bank is interested in all this. The bank's TEFL program is concerned solely with the language components which accompany these steps. The formulation of the TEFL objectives might, therefore, look something like this:

The employee should understand sentences of the patterns:

1. I want to cash this cheque.
2. Where do I endorse it?
3. I'd like it in five pound-notes.

4. I'm in a bit of a hurry.

The employee should be able to produce responses of the patterns:

1. Thank you. Would you wait a minute please?
2. I'm afraid I will have to ask the manager.
3. Could you come back in about an hour, please?

Even the paralinguistic features, the smiles, gestures and intimations that all will soon be sorted out, can be specified clearly if need be.

In many TEFL programs it is possible to predict with a high degree of accuracy the sentence types which will be needed to carry on the non-linguistic activity concerned, also the vocabulary items, the medium (writing or speech), and the balance of production and comprehension of the items listed.

A simple example. A chemist working in an analytical laboratory will have hardly any direct face-to-fact contact with the customers who send him the samples for analysis. He needs, therefore, only the written form of the language. Even of this he needs only a limited comprehension such as will enable him to understand the request which accompanies the sample. So much for his "input." For his "output," just a minimum of patterns will suffice for his productive repertoire, patterns such as:

The sample of milk submitted by Mr. X contained 20% by weight of water.

His set of vocabulary items will be limited almost entirely to the elements and compounds his laboratory is capable of testing for.

Elsewhere, the specification of objectives will not be as easy. A tractor repair mechanic, working through the medium of English, will need a good deal more of the written language, at least in comprehension, in order to understand the maintenance manuals. He will also need to understand more patterns of spoken English if that is the language used by the tractor operators to describe the symptoms needing attention. He will need, however, hardly any ability to write English, and certainly none at all of the traditional schoolboy formats of precis, essay, letter to a friend and the like.

The first step, then, in an evaluation is, I believe, to obtain a clear formulation, in terms of student behaviour, of the objectives of the program. Once the objectives are firmly pinned down, it will be possible to proceed with the examination of two questions: first, obviously, how far those aims are being achieved; and second, though it may seem superfluous in the presence of the first, how far the learning activities of the program are relevant to the stated objectives.

As to the first, the attainment of what is wanted: if our objectives have been stated in terms of student behaviour, then our evaluation must also be in terms of student behaviour. If our aim was to take a man who could not type and, through a program, turn him into a good typist, then our evaluation will take the form of sitting him down at a typewriter and asking him to start typing. Our examination will not be on the design of the keyboard. Nor will there be questions on the history of shorthand. Nor will we even ask him or his teachers if he knows how to type or which fingers go with which letters. The only relevant test is to ask him to do the job. Obvious as all this is, we are often reluctant to apply the same kind of logic when it comes to evaluating a language program. Our reluctance is not without cause. To test the bank employee's ability to use English on the job is harder than to test it in the classroom by a multiple-choice, written examination at the end of the course. On the other hand, it is shabby philosophy and poor common sense to test only what is easy to test rather than what we need to test. One is reminded of the legendary student who lost his watch one night in West Hall, but went to Jafet Library to look for it because the lighting was so much better in the Library.

There are other reasons for our reluctance to focus an evaluation on the end-product of a program. Having spent several years on evaluations, both in teams and alone, I am guiltily familiar with these reasons. One is that the evaluation of a program by its end-product in action relieves us of all obligation to visit the actual program itself. At most, a courtesy call on the Director will be necessary to pick up a statement of objectives, and then out into the field for the rest of our stay. Yet few TEFL programs would feel they had received justice, let alone mercy, from the inspector were not the rituals, the tours of the buildings, visits to the library and meetings with teachers observed. I wish I had a dollar for each time I have walked down a stone corridor behind a Principal or Director as he opens door after door chanting, "And this is another classroom. . .and this is where. . .and in here. . ."

But a more serious cause of our unwillingness to focus an evaluation entirely on the end-product, the student's behaviour, is the honest evaluator's feeling of inadequacy to assess this behaviour quantitatively. Our inadequacy stems from a real lack of both experience and procedures in appropriate techniques. For example, if, in a bank employee evaluation, the evaluator asks the cashier for ten five-pound notes, and the cashier, sweating under the heat of midsummer, hands back twenty-three singles with the words, "And a Merry Chirstmas to you, sir," the program has failed. On the other hand, if, instead of ten fives, the cashier hands back five tens, we are not really sure whether it is his language or his concentration which is wandering. Probably one of the things an organization such as the Center for English Language Research and Teaching (CELRT) could do would be to mastermind the construction of some behavioural tests of EFL proficiency with respect to specific occupations.

We mentioned earlier that once the aims of the program were clear we would be able to look not only at their fulfillment, but also at the relevance of the activities the program engaged in. At first sight, the fruits alone might seem sufficient criteria of the tree, but the truth is that the product is always one step behind the program. An excellent result may be the outcome of something which was done two years ago but which is not being done now. An evaluation, therefore, needs, like the two-headed Janus, to look both forward and backward. The quality of the ex-student's English provides the hindsight, and the relevance of the program's activities provides, hopefully, a forecast of the future. To put the matter in another way, the observation of the graduate in action helps us, like a post-mortem or autopsy, to assign causes to results; the examination of the program itself helps us predict results from data.

Guidelines for an Evaluation

In the time remaining I wish to suggest a ten-point system for appraising an existing program. Those of us who are obliged to make such evaluations from time to time, without the help or hindrance of external experts, may find the checklist helpful. The ten observation focuses are presented sequentially in the sense of what to look for first, but they are not given in order of importance.

(1) What is the quality of the students entering the program?

There is an overworked English proverb that one cannot make a silk purse out of a pig's ear. Indeed, although there are probably many excellent things which can be made from a pig's ear and which cannot be made from a silk purse, the underlying truth of the proverb is not to be doubted. Computer operators have even devised a name for this truth, the GIGO Principle. G.I.G.O. stands for "Garbage in: garbage out." Education is said to consist of leading people from the known to the unknown. If, however, the entry behaviour of students coming into the program is below criterion, then the best curriculum in the world can expect only, in Sledd's phrase, to lead them from morass to morass. A good program will have, at its beginning, some form of entrance test or qualification and an admissions policy which will either firmly reject any student who does not measure up to the standard or (and this is equally valuable and often the only possible course) will change the program to fit the abilities of those who must be admitted. A flexible entrance policy coupled with an inflexible program is like a saw with a rubber blade: very pretty, harmless to children, silent in operation, but it cuts no wood. The students in it are led from partial knowledge to perfect confusion.

(2) Are the activities of the program relevant to its aims?

If the students need, at the end, to be able to understand and use only spoken English, then should they be writing those compositions? Should they even be completing those fill-the-blanks written exercises?

In determining whether an activity is relevant to a final objective or not, one must keep the delicate balance of emphasis between practising the skill which will finally be needed, and carrying out activities which are usually known as "build-ups." For example, if the aim of a beginning music student is one day to play a Mozart sonata perfectly, he must eventually spend a lot of his practice time playing that sonata. However, he will not, typically, begin his first piano lesson working at the opening bars. He will practise scales, arpeggios and more before he even opens the Mozart itself. Certain activities can usually be seen, by an unbiased observer, to be more, or less, relevant to the final skills towards which the program is directed.

(3) What goes on in the classes?

Once we are sure which things are relevant, we need to know how much time in class is spent doing them. An inexpensive piece of evaluation equipment is a stop-watch. And yet it is almost a necessity if we are to get a true picture of how much time is spent and how much wasted in matters of importance or peripheral concern in class. If the practice of oral English, for example, has been decided to be a relevant activity, then we need to know how much time the students spend actually using oral English themselves in class, as opposed to the time spent listening to the teacher. Again, do all the students have a chance to take part in the relevant activities or are only a few actually participating in them? Some years ago I covered for a colleague by taking her class at short notice and got the impression that all her students were fairly proficient in spoken English, only to find out afterwards that there had been one small Chinese boy who had been sitting with the other pupils simply because he had had a day off from his own school and so had joined his sister who was in this class. He spoke almost no English whatsoever. I did not notice because I had not called on him.

(4) What is the quality of the teaching staff?

I am referring here to the professional and personal rather than to the academic kind of qualification. On the professional side, while it is true that the best teachers are more often born than made, it is equally true that few programs can expect to get the small numbers of natural, born teachers on the market. We will usually have to make do with the other, the made, kind. And, if teachers are going to be made, then let them be made in their own time and at somebody else's expense. Let them learn their job in a training college, or a supervised teaching situation of some sort, rather than in an overseas program where there are difficulties enough without those extra ones occasioned by cutting one's teeth on the first batch of students.

On the personal side of a teacher's qualifications, experience will, therefore, also rank high. But his personal language skills are of equal moment. He need not have the pronunciation of a native speaker to teach effectively. Indeed, the teacher who has learnt English as a second language may often have more insights than his British or American colleague. However, he must have at least that proficiency which enables him to conduct his classes with a carefree accuracy such as will encourage the use of the spoken language by his students, and such as will provide them with an acceptable model. A teacher who is self-conscious about his own use of English will invariably inhibit the easy development of advanced speech skills in those he teaches. Moreover, the copy is not often better than the model.

(5) What administrative support and encouragement is given to the program?

Many a good program has flourished on a minimum of support, provided a measure of encouragement was supplied by the administration of the sponsoring organization. Yet encouragement is not really enough. There are two places where, if no actual support is forthcoming, a program usually falters.

First: time and timetabling. The acquisition of a language, like that of any other skill, takes time. Moreover, the formula for success is "a little and often." While we may hope for wonders, we should not count on miracles. Depending upon the specification of objectives, so we must calculate the amount of time needed. Various rule of thumb figures are available, none of them very satisfactory. The classic 200 hours for absolute beginners to develop basic conversational fluency takes no account of age, motivation, and so on. Nor does it provide for the way the 200 hours must be spread out. Ten periods of an hour each, well spaced out, are far more valuable than five periods of two hours each.

Again, more important even than the quantity of time allowed, is the willingness of the employer to release the employees at times when they can meet their teachers in the right ability and achievement groups. It is harder to teach a class containing six students of diverse ability and achievement than it is to teach a class of sixty who are all at the same point and able to move at the same rate. The temptation from the employer's side, however, is to release employees in groups who work together rather than in groups of those who can best study together.

Second: a modest budget. A company usually understands the need for paying teachers' salaries, but beyond that it is easier, as Parkinson has pointed out, to requisition a $50,000 transmogrifier than a few new blackboards.

(6) What facilities are there for follow-up and feed-back?

The line between feed-back and evaluation is hard, and unnecessary, to draw. The program which, however, has no time or money built into it for checking its achievements as it goes is being penny wise and pound foolish. In few other areas of industry or commerce would such economies be permitted. Manufacturers want to know not only what their product looks like when it leaves the factory, but how it has stood up to the wear and tear of a year, five years and more. Only with this data in their hands can the men at the drawing-board reasonably expect to detect and correct weaknesses and modify against their reappearance in future models. Coupled with this, of course, is the question of what facilities are built into a program for some form of continuing self-evaluation and regeneration. Can these two vital aspects of any program be provided, at least largely, from within, or must they come always from outside. As long as these fire and phoenix factors are not available from inside, the program will be in tutelage to some parent body, or Big Brother Organization--a desirable state of affairs in the early days perhaps, but one to be rectified as soon as prudently possible.

(7) It would be tempting, from a dollars and cents point of view, to ask as a seventh question: "Does the program pay for itself?" However, the two answers, both equally true, are known already: "Obviously not," and "Nobody knows." We can at least question, however, whether, for the same results, the program is costing its sponsor more and more or less and less each year. Hopefully, there should be some sort of movement towards self-sufficiency in the operation, at least in terms of manpower. A good program is one which works towards phasing itself out. This will be possible either when the whole student population has been through the cycle, or when some of those who enter it as trainees are fit to rejoin it as teachers. Again, a good program will often generate other, more specialized or differently slanted programs which can eventually replace their parent.

While this happy state of affairs is a rare one, its opposite is fairly common and easy to detect in an evaluation. I have in mind the kind of situation in which the seed corn is being eaten rather than stored. In one program I remember, of approximately twenty students who entered a two-year teacher training course to become good English teachers, only twelve emerged at the exit. Of these, only six are now teaching English. The rest have been lured away by higher salaries to the airlines, by security to the civil service, or by prestige to administration of other kinds where their English language skills--not their teaching skills--were at a premium.

(8) Is the pressure of the program being applied at the right point?

It is a truism amongst educational planners that if the resources for teaching, say, science, are limited, then one does not teach it in the primary schools of a country with a school-going population in the shape of a pyramid. One does not use the few teachers and modest funds available to teach a little science to ten million primary children of whom only two million will remain in the system long enough to reach the high school classes where they can use their knowledge. Instead, one puts the money and men into teaching science well--albeit late and for the first time--to the much smaller number of high school students. Similarly, in an industry employing ten thousand workers, it will not be possible to teach English to everyone, certainly not all at once and at the beginning.

For whom, and when, then, should the program operate? Courses given to the senior employees only would spread the impression that one can get to the top without the benefit of English. On the other hand, a program for the most junior workers is likely to fail in that its graduates may well not use English until they are some years older and some steps senior. Here again the needs of the individual sponsor will dictate wisdom. However, for the purposes of evaluating a program it is essential that the question of when and for whom be tackled in an objective manner. The whole range and interlock of job opportunities and language training opportunities must be considered, as must the availability and scope of refresher and specialized courses as opposed to the regular core program.

(9) How attractive is the program?

The ninth question leads us back to the first. In order to attract high quality entrants the program must be an appealing one. However efficient it may be, unless it commends itself to possible students it will starve for want of the best raw material. One is reminded of Professor Skinner, the proponent of Operant Conditioning, who, in an attempt to assess the value of programmed instruction, put his own Introductory Psychology course onto a teaching machine. The grades of those students who took the course from the machine were significantly higher than the scores of those who took it from the living professor, but very few students signed up for a second semester with the hardware. It was too dull. Our ninth question, then, is that of the public image of the program.

(10) Finally, a kind of non-question; What are the things that are irrelevant to an evaluation? What distractions beset the evaluator's path? Here it is very hard to be objective. I believe, however, from experience that the following things are either quite irrelevant to any general evaluation, or else are functions of some other factor already scrutinized.

(a) Hardware

Clearly a few items of equipment beyond the regular classroom supplies are necessary: a duplicator, a few good but not professional quality tape-recorders, typing and filing facilities. On the other hand, the more ambitious items such as language laboratories have not proved themselves more worthwhile than an equivalent amount of time and money invested in extra teaching staff. We have some evidence that, dollar for dollar, they are worse value. Moreover, if, say, a language laboratory is installed then it is necessary to employ both the academic and the technical staff which will enable the program to make good use of it. A laboratory does not release, rather it commits more staff time.

(b) Teachers' Salaries

No salary: no teacher. True, but once that is said very little else follows. The staffing of TEFL programs, certainly as far as the native speaker is concerned, is a peculiar and often fortuitous business. The group that comes because of high salaries seems to contain about the same proportion of export rejects and chronic expatriates-for-another-cause as would be attracted by poorer-paid jobs. In general, a high salary scale is not much use as an evaluation criterion.

(c) Academic Qualifications of the Staff

While we saw earlier that the professional and personal qualifications of the teachers are extremely important, their subject qualifications, at least on paper, are often misleading. Language teachers tend to come from the disciplines of either English Literature or Linguistics. Many of the former would be the first to admit that such matters as the imagery of fire and darkness in Macbeth are remote from the teaching of "This is a book" in some outpost of industry. Again, though Linguistics has a good deal to say, this should be said, perhaps, at the teacher training level, or in the places where materials and methods are being evolved. Moreover, among the less desirable kind of native-speaking English teacher, there is a monstrous conceit that being able to speak English is qualification enough to teach it, and having a degree in English or Linguistics is ample excuse for supervising others.

(d) Other

Finally, the number of working committees, the quantity of paperasse produced and the size of the library are usually not very informative, though when an evaluator visits the library he can learn something from the time it takes for the person in charge to locate a particular book and from seeing how often it has been taken out.

Our time this morning has almost run out, and yet it is difficult to find any tidy ending to this untidy overview of evaluation. Someone once said that an address at a conference is rather like a love affair: any fool can begin it easily enough, but it takes considerable skill and patience to bring it to a satisfactory conclusion. So let me bow out by the same door that I entered.

We started this morning on the hillside at Shrirangapatnam. The jewelled sword hilt which sparked off our consideration of language programs is now safely in a case in a British museum. Wellesley received glory and an Irish marquisate before he died. Tipoo Sultan is largely forgotten. The policy to make Hindi the national language of India remains on the statutue books, and the Institute designed for this purpose is running smoothly.

However, this day last year, after the opening of the Summer Institute was over, I went down to the post office in Mysore to send a cable. The machinery of language change had already begun to turn. Above the post office counter was a notice: "Send your telegrams in Hindi." By the door on the way out was another: "Did you use Hindi?" These two might well serve as a caution to us all, for both notices, the statement of objectives and the instrument of their evaluation, were, predictably, written in English.

The proper study of Mankind is Man. Evaluation, then, must start and end with a good hard look at the reasonableness of his aspirations and the limits of his potential.

PROSPECTS AND PROPOSALS

The concluding two papers survey the progress of English language teaching in the Arab World and the prospects for change; they also make concrete suggestions about how the specialists and the consumers can cooperate to their mutual benefit.

ENGLISH TEACHING IN THE MIDDLE EAST: PROSPECTS FOR CHANGE

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When the Steering Committee of this conference asked me to talk about the prospects for change in the teaching of English, they asked me to look both backward and forward. They suggested that I was a suitable person to look backward because of my twenty-one years in the Middle East. Now, twenty-one years can make a person suddenly feel very old indeed, and old people can be forgiven for occasionally being foolish. So I tentatively entitled my talk: English Teaching in the Tense Middle East: the Simple Past, the Present Progressive and the Future Perfect.

Rather than go back twenty-one years, it is enough for the Simple Past to begin in 1960. In that year an international conference, supported by the Ford Foundation and reported by the Center for Applied Linguistics, was held in London. The conference considered "Second Language Learning as a Factor in National Development." The second languages were mainly French and English, but because the conference was considering Latin America, Asia and Africa, other languages (such as Swahili and Arabic) were also included as what the conference called languages of wider communication (LWC). In this review of some of the recommendations which grew out of that conference, I have substituted English for LWC.

Let us look at some of the recommendations of 1960 and consider what changes have occurred during the past eleven years.

RECOMMENDATION 1: Professional Status

> It is essential to recognize that teaching English is not done effectively by amateurs. It requires special training, stable career patterns, specific research and professional organizations.

This emphasis on the professional status of TEFL is, of course, still true today and tremendous strides toward the professionalization of the field have been made in the past dozen years. Today there is a vast number and variety of undergraduate and graduate degree programs in TEFL, in both the United States and the United Kingdom. At least two universities in the Middle East (the American University of Beirut and the American University in Cairo) have initiated TEFL programs since 1960.

Numerous courses for foreign teachers of English are held in England each summer, and the ministries of education in the Middle East have undertaken summer and in-service training programs to upgrade English language instruction.

In 1960, there was only one professional journal devoted to the teaching of English as a foreign language, English Language

Teaching, now published jointly by the British Council and Oxford University Press. There are now at least three others: TESOL Quarterly, published by an association established in the United States in 1965, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages; English Teaching Forum, published and distributed overseas free of charge by the United States Information Agency; and TEFL, a quarterly bulletin, published by the Center for English Language Research and Teaching of AUB, now distributed to about 3,000 teachers in the Middle East. English Teaching Abstracts, published by the English Teaching Information Centre in London, should also be mentioned as a useful source of professional articles in the field.

There is also a variety of professional organizations for the English teacher to join: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (centered at Georgetown University in Washington), the Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (London) and the organization established at this conference, specifically for teachers in this area, ATEMENA, Association of Teachers of English in the Middle East and North Africa. In addition, there is the English Teaching Information Centre (ETIC) in London and the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) in Washington. The ERIC Clearing House (Educational Research Information Center) also assembles, annotates and distributes professional books and articles in the field of TEFL.

In the past dozen years, TEFL has attained a true professional status. An EFL teacher can be proud of his discipline, whether on an academic campus or in a business training program.

RECOMMENDATION 2: Teachers

> Major emphasis must be placed on the preparation and training of local nationals as teachers. The low status and low standards of language teachers in many areas must be raised. Remuneration according to defined and graded professional qualifications, within the regular educational system, must be encouraged and aided.

Unfortunately the situation of teachers has not improved very much, if at all; certainly not in the public educational system of the Middle East. Their pay remains painfully low and inadequate; their classes are too large and their teaching load too heavy. This is not, however, a result of their government's lack of interest or effort so much as a result of the tremendous increase in student enrollment. In every Middle East country during the past decade, statistics show a heartening rise in the number of students in school and an increasing choice of English as the foreign language.

The magnitude of the teaching task can be seen from Lebanon where, it should be remembered, the literacy rate is already the highest in the Arab World. In 1960 there were 292,774 students in the public and private schools at the elementary and secondary levels. By 1969, this figure had more than doubled to 658,448. This burgeoning enrollment, coupled with the increasing selection of English rather than French as a foreign language, has strained the teacher training resources of the country; the number of qualified English teachers is depressingly low. Probably no more than ten per cent have both an adequate command of English and sufficient professional training.

It is clear that under such circumstances, which are characteristic of all the countries in the Middle East, the professional preparation of teachers is going to require a new approach.

RECOMMENDATION 3: Training of Teachers

> The coming decades demand the rapid development of a substantial number of qualified individuals to train teachers who will in turn be trainers of teachers. Cadres of local nationals must be developed who will be qualified to train local teachers to plan and administer local programs of instruction, and to plan and carry out programs of research and preparation of materials appropriate to their countries.

EFL teacher training programs in the area have two important tasks: 1) to improve the potential teacher's own command of English; and 2) to provide instruction and practice in EFL teaching techniques. Both of these tasks require careful planning, considerable money and a core of professionally qualified teachers and teacher trainers.

The teacher training programs in the area generally assume that the trainees have gained a sufficient control of English from their regular elementary and secondary classes; the training therefore concentrates only on the second task, that of techniques of teaching. This assumption is naive. The regular English classes are quite inadequate preparation for those who are to become teachers of English. This is demonstrated by the oft-heard question of trainees who are required to study intensive English: "Why I am in this program? I speak already very well the English."

In addition to a reasonably fluent command of all the English language skills, trainees require extensive instruction and practice in the principles and methods of EFL teaching. As elsewhere in the world, Arab teachers tend to teach in the same way that they were taught. It is now a cliché to say that we must teach English and not teach about English. But too often we make the same kind of mistake in teacher training: we teach about teaching but do not provide enough practice in the actual skills of teaching.

Numerous workshops and in-service programs have been held in each of the countries, but few have been carefully coordinated with long-range plans for the overall educational development of the country. As a single example, there seems to be a surprising lack of logic and priority when teachers are trained in new English teaching techniques before their inspectors or supervisors. The result is that many trainees report their inability to apply their new skills. "My inspector won't allow me" is a common complaint.

There is a serious need to establish minimum qualifications for EFL teachers in the Middle East, standards of proficiency in each of the skills of English as well as suitable criteria for teacher certification. The Modern Language Association in the United States has developed a scale of qualifications for foreign-language teachers that might serve as an example. This perhaps should be one of the first tasks of the Association of Teachers of English in the Middle East and North Africa. With the support of a professional organization such as ATEMENA, governments and training institutions could base their programs, development plans and even remuneration on the basis of the qualifications that are prescribed.

RECOMMENDATION 4: Country Plans

> Efforts must be made to determine the exact needs in a country and to make program plans appropriate to them, rather than to attempt to use identical approaches throughout the world. Immediate short-range measures such as staffing schools with English teachers from resource countries should be regarded as temporary expedients and should be carried out in conjunction with long-range plans for building up indigenous resources.

A number of surveys have been conducted during the past dozen years, some of which have come to nothing. One of the best planned and coordinated long-term projects that I know of was sponsored by the Center for English Language Research and Teaching and carried out in Jordan by Dr. Raja Nasr from July 1966 through June 1967. The closing date of that survey suggests what became of it.

The same events in June 1967 caused the collapse of plans to hold a Beirut Conference on English Language Teaching, organized by this Center and sponsored by the British Council and the U.S. Agency for International Development, with a grant from the Ford Foundation. The purpose of this conference was "to determine the function of English in the Arabic-speaking countries. . .to determine what *can* be done through the medium of the Arabic language and what *must* be done through the medium of English." A questionnaire, prepared by Sirarpi Ohanessian of the Center for Applied Linguistics and Arthur King of the British Council, was sent to all of the Arabic-speaking countries, requesting information about manpower needs, the teaching of English and French, the training of English teachers and the language policy of each country. This information, incomplete and now out of date, was never able to be used.

Long-term plans to develop indigenous resources and to coordinate an overall language policy for the area are still very much needed.

RECOMMENDATION 5: Regional Centers

> Although most developments in the teaching of English may be expected to take place in the context of single nations, whenever similarities in problems and attitudes make a regional

approach practicable, this should be encouraged because of the more efficient utilization of resources. This may be especially effective for the preparation of instructional materials and research in methods.

In addition to the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington and the English Teaching Information Centre in London, at least two regional centers have been organized specifically for the teaching of English overseas.

The first was the Center for English Language Research and Teaching, established at the American University of Beirut in July 1964 with a grant from the U.S. Agency for International Development. It has three purposes: 1) to provide undergraduate and graduate degree programs in English language and TEFL. With only four students in 1964, the enrollment has grown to thirty-five in the MA program; 2) to provide advice and assistance to countries which request the help of the Center. To date, we have offered in-service training programs and consultation services to ministries, businesses and English programs in Aleppo, Basrah, Kabul, Amman, Tangier, Jeddah, Riyadh, Kuwait and numerous schools in Lebanon; 3) to undertake practical research and the development of materials for teaching and teacher training. This has included the preparation of specialized lessons for the University Orientation Program, language lab tapes, mimeographed bibliographies and instructional materials for the methods courses and, more recently, the development of videotaped models and modules for micro-teaching, using the Center's closed circuit television system. Major research projects included a two-year study of the English programs for the Lebanese military, an evaluation of the Teacher Education Program developed by English Language Services Inc. for the U.S. government, a proposed curriculum for a three-year English program at the University of North Africa, and a revised syllabus for the English programs in Lebanese elementary and secondary schools.

The second such center to be established, in 1967, was RELC: the Regional English Language Center in Singapore, sponsored by seven SEAMEC countries (Southeast Asia Ministers of Education Council) and supported by the British Council and the U.S. Agency for International Development.

The establishment of these two centers has gone a long way toward fulfilling the 1960 recommendation. Because of slightly differing problems, in addition to the Center here at AUB, it is likely that another EFL center for North Africa would be appropriate.

RECOMMENDATION 6: International Cooperation

> Numerous centers exist throughout the world for research on, and the application and dissemination of ideas for, the development of the teaching of English. It is essential to encourage a closer liaison among these centers not only within a certain country, but among different countries. This liaison could take the form of exchange of specialists and study teams, the creation of international centers and, above all, permanent exchange of information and material.

The past dozen years has seen a healthy increase of cooperation and coordination between the United States and England, starting with the first Ditchley Conference in England and followed by the Dartmouth Conference in the United States. The conference two years ago in Cairo and now this conference in Beirut further demonstrates a coordinated approach to the problems of English language teaching in the area.

Another interesting and practical example is the production of twelve half-hour radio talks entitled "A Common Language," recorded by Albert Marckwardt (U.S.) and Randolph Quirk (U.K.) and distributed jointly by the BBC and Voice of America.

There is a continuing need for exchange and cooperation among the universities and language centers of this area as well as with institutions in the United States and England. As the EFL profession evolves, with new approaches, methods and materials developing rapidly, it is easy to get out of touch overseas. Exchange programs and a systematic plan to send specialists to national and international EFL conferences should be developed so that the seeds of cross-fertilization may bear fruit.

RECOMMENDATION 7: Linguistic Research and Methodology

> It should be recognized that a variety of methods might be employed in meeting different objectives of second language teaching. There are, however, certain common factors: (a) in many countries there is need for much greater emphasis on oral training than is usually given; (b) there is need for the development of courses in special uses of English, e.g., technical English; and (c) use should be made of the results of linguistic science wherever appropriate, such as in the preparation of materials.

The most significant development in linguistic science during the past dozen years has been the displacement of the structural grammar of the 1940's and 50's by the transformational-generative model. An audio-lingual approach to language teaching, firmly based on behavioral psychology, is now viewed as the mechanical manipulation of language forms, initially necessary perhaps but ultimately insufficient. Transformational grammar, with a bow to cognitive psychology, is increasingly being explored as a possible basis for EFL methods and materials.

There has been an explosion of EFL books and materials, many of them complete series with texts, tapes, flash cards, charts and teachers guides. Much of the recent material is good, some of it is bad, but all of it is probably better than what was available not many years ago.

There has also been an increase of "special English" material, but much of it is merely a nod to the needs of the time, an attempt to get onto the publisher's bandwagon. "It's a torque wrench/hammer/micrometer" is not much better, after all, than "It's a watch/comb/toothbrush."

These then are seven of the recommendations made in 1960 concerning second-language learning as a factor in national development. Having viewed the EFL situation from the perspective of the Simple Past and Present Progressive, is it possible now to talk about the Future? In other words, what are the prospects for change?

Educational innovation in general is likely to occur in two directions at once, directions that are opposite but complementary: 1) the use of mass-media to provide instruction for a great number of students at one time; and 2) the use of individualized, programmed instruction for a single student at any time.

Because of the already vast and continually increasing number of students to be taught, some form of mass-communications media will have to be resorted to. English by radio has been used for many years, and more recently television has added the visual component to instruction. The "Walter and Connie" and "Slim John" series produced by the British Council, and the USIS series "Let's Learn English," have been televised for a general audience, but these programs are not complete enough nor have they been coordinated with a government syllabus. There have been limited attempts to use educational television (ETV) on a nation-wide basis--the English programs of the Jordan ETV Service come to mind, or the programs developed in Cairo by ARLO (Arab Regional Literacy Organization)--but as yet no government has been willing or able to commit itself to an approach in which ETV carries the main burden of English instruction, supplemented by a classroom teacher. Aside from the enormous initial capital investment, there is the serious problem of adapting texts, writing scripts, producing the programs, not to mention the need to train producers, directors and technicians, to prepare the classroom teachers (both professionally and psychologically), to coordinate the necessary ETV and classroom schedules and to undertake a follow-up. Yet, how else can so many students be taught by so few teachers? The successful use of ETV on the island of Samoa, where all class subjects from elementary through secondary are taught by ETV, is evidence that the medium can be effective. Furthermore, in the case of English and the lack of qualified teachers, it has been found that ETV beamed into the classroom for twenty minutes of each period also teaches the teachers, who in turn are then able to take over the class and provide the practice and reinforcement that language learning requires. One wonders--and it would be worth experimental verification--whether English instruction by classroom television, using qualified teachers and well-prepared lessons, would be any less effective than the present classes with poorly qualified teachers using traditional methods of teaching.

The techniques of programmed instruction are likely to be increasingly used to provide the kind of individualization that is not possible with mass-media. It is quite possible that programmed workbooks, even casette audio-tapes, may supplement the televised instruction so that a student might practice at his own pace. To date, the most elaborate (and expensive!) application of programming techniques in EFL is the Teacher Education Program (TEP) developed by English Language Services Inc. This self-instructional program is intended to train teachers of EFL and includes a console with a tape recorder, 8mm rear-screen cartridge projector, earphones and speakers, a fan and light, all enclosed within a fiber glass acoustic shell. The trainee works through twenty-seven programmed workbooks and completes several hundred exercises (the exact number depends upon his own rate of progress). The exercises are based on 140 audio tapes and 158 films, during which he observes teaching demonstrations, prepares a micro-lesson and then teaches and interacts with students on film. This kind of individualized instruction has numerous potential applications and portends the pedagogical approaches to come, not because it may be more effective but because it is the only technology we have at present that can cope with large numbers and support the limited teaching and teacher training resources.

Instructional technology, such as the use of language labs, television and teaching machines, is primarily concerned with the devices of instruction, the hardware. As such, it is neither good nor bad except insofar as the devices can or cannot present the material to be learned effectively and efficiently. In the last analysis, it is the software--the programs on the audio or video-tape, the material that goes into the machine--that will be the determining factor of success. For this we will continue to need qualified linguists, language teachers and materials writers.

In the field of EFL, there will continue to be grammars and rumors of grammars, new methods and even new new-methods. There will also be conferences and, I hope, increasing coordination and cooperation as a result of these conferences. But the significantly new development, not yet sufficiently considered in the Middle East and yet bound I think to come in time--in the Future Perfect--will be the application of instructional technology to the teaching of English as a foreign language.

WHAT SERVICES CAN SPECIALISTS OFFER CONSUMERS?

NEIL BRATTON
AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF BEIRUT

In the business world and in industry it is a common practice to call ~~in spe~~cialists either for consultation or in order to solve problems which lie outside the competence of a businessman or an industrialist. It is expected that the specialist be suitably qualified for the job and that he perform his tasks within certain constraints of time and cost; he is also held accountable for the results of his work. Both parties appear to know what is expected of them.

Unfortunately, this is not yet the case with English language teaching; for, although TEFL has long been a profession, it has only recently become "professional." By this I do not mean that previously teachers were incompetent or that, nowadays, a paper qualification is a guarantee of excellence. I simply mean that one can now expect a certain level of competence in specific skills that are part of the training that leads to the paper qualification--as one can from the holder of, say, a degree in engineering.

This may seem an obvious point to make, but it is surprising to find that the same company which, in choosing its regular staff, goes to considerable trouble to examine a man's credentials, will often employ a teacher of English merely because he speaks English and says he is a teacher. Furthermore, whereas an employee is held accountable for the job assigned him, a teacher of English is not, because his objectives have not been rigorously specified. This state of affairs is surprising in the light of the assertion made to me by several training officers that a knowledge of English is "vital" to the success of their training programs and hence to the future efficiency of their companies' operations.

The TEFL profession has been nurtured mainly in schools and universities where the goals of language teaching are notoriously vague and where the "behavioral objectives" (if you will excuse the jargon) are stated no more specifically than "passing the exam." However, if this conference has achieved its purpose, the "consumers" should now be more aware of what they can expect from a qualified TEFL specialist and the "specialists" should realize that "job English," or English for special purposes, far from being too limited and workaday a pursuit for academic minds, in fact presents us with a fascinating field of "linguistic engineering" in which we will have to refine the tools of our trade to meet the rigorous specifications of the job. To meet this challenge both the consumer and the specialist must undergo a change of attitude towards the teaching of English.

It is important for us to take note that the necessary expertise to set up special English courses already exists in this part of the world (represented by at least half of the participants at this conference) and needs merely to be marshalled in order to be made exploitable. It is, therefore, not without significance that two associations have been formed this year--the Association of Teachers of English in the Middle East and North Africa (ATEMENA) with headquarters in Cairo, and the Association of Teachers of English in the Arab World (AUTEAW) with headquarters in Beirut. The creation of these two associations marks the coming of age of the TEFL profession in the area and establishes two allied headquarters to which requests for assistance may be directed.

We have heard from Professor Peter Strevens and Mr. Matthew Macmillan what has been achieved so far in the field of English for special purposes in other parts of the world: we can now turn to the Arab World and ask the question, "What kinds of service can specialists offer consumers?"

I should like to discuss these services under five headings: 1) Consultancy 2) Recruitment 3) Materials selection and preparation 4) Special English courses and 5) Teacher Training. I should like to include among the consumers Ministries of Education since they require similar kinds of services and stand to benefit from the "cost-effectiveness" approach of the world of business.

1) Consultancy

A TEFL consultant can perform the following services:

a) He can look at the general design of a language program and help to determine its specific objectives. He can then say whether the existing program is the most efficient way of achieving those objectives.

b) He can assess the teachers' general competence and the particular methods they are employing and help them to make any changes necessitated by the revised objectives.

c) He can examine the materials being used and judge whether they are the best available on the market and, if they are not, he can say where better materials may be obtained. He can suggest other texts to supplement those being used.

d) He can advise on the services listed below (2 - 5).

2) Recruitment

TEFL centers such as CELRT and the English Language Institute of the American University in Cairo produce trained teachers of English and are in touch with other such centers in the area and abroad. They also receive many applications for jobs from trained teachers which are then kept on file. They are, therefore, in a good position to act as recruiting offices for companies who need teachers of English. Both consumer and specialist would stand to benefit from such an arrangement. The benefit to the consumer would derive from the centers' experience in this kind of work and from the regularity and continuity with which they could do it; it would save the consumer from the last minute scramble for teachers which, to judge from advertisements in the local papers, occurs every year. The benefit to the specialists, as a body, would be the measure of quality control that could be exercised by the profession over those who teach English.

3) Materials selection and preparation

TEFL centers are regularly sent, by both British and American publishers, the latest books in the field, among which are an increasing number on special English: English for Banking, Nursing, Business Correspondence, Agriculture, Engineering and so on. They are, therefore, in a very favorable position to see which books are available on the market and to judge their quality. This information can then be passed on to the consumer.

It is often the case, though, that the available texts do not exactly fit the consumer's requirements since they are either too difficult or too easy, too general or too specific. In such cases the materials need to be written specially and a TEFL center has the staff qualified to produce such materials. For example, during this past year, the center at AUB taught English to gatemen, nurses' aides and hospital storeroom employees. In each case, after watching, listening and tape-recording the employees while they were on the job, the staff prepared materials for a course lasting from four to six weeks. The classes met no more than three times a week for one hour since the employees were full-time workers and could not be allowed off the job for a longer period. These severe constraints led us to alter our approach radically. Obviously, we could not spend a whole week with the gatemen practising "This is a book," "Is this a knife?" "No it isn't, it's a book." Instead we found that "giving directions" and "polite refusals," which do not usually appear in early lessons, had to be included very early on.

Perhaps the most interesting set of materials written was "Basic Lebanese Arabic for newly arrived housewives." This was a twenty-hour course in which only the barest essentials of colloquial Arabic could be included: decisions had to be taken that would make a normal textbook writer's hair stand on end. For example, the first verb form taught was the seond person singular feminine imperative! When you consider that a foreign housewife has to cope daily with her house maid, the decision seems obviously right; yet this only became clear to the writer of the materials after she had observed the behavior of her class of housewives in their own homes. Writing and teaching this course forced her to be far more ruthless and efficient than she had found necessary when teaching general English to a heterogeneous group of students. However, by rising to the challenge, she produced a course which satisfied her customers far more than the more generalized course in colloquial Arabic that some of them had already taken. It would appear that local needs are best met by using local resources which are more sensitive to the specific needs of the consumer. It was encouraging, therefore, to note at this conference the interest shown by international publishers in exploring the possibility of collaboration between publishing houses and TEFL centers in materials preparation. Here, then, is another area where consumers can tap the resources of the specialists.

4) Special English courses

A university, which is the usual home of a TEFL center, caters principally to students working towards a degree. However, it is possible (and I would say necessary in this part of the world) for the expertise concentrated within a university to be made more available to adults who have full-time jobs but who need to gain further knowledge, or to develop certain skills, in order to improve themselves in their work. A university extension service, which does not grant degrees but only certificates of attendance, can fulfill such a need.

Next year, for instance, AUB is planning to offer several courses in special English and at least one in Lebanese Arabic for foreign housewives. The Beirut College for Women and the large Department of Public Services at the American University in Cairo also offer such courses. Granted, one has to be living in Beirut or Cairo in order to benefit from such services but it is (nevertheless) possible to arrange, for those who live elsewhere, special, intensive courses, either in the summer or during the academic year for periods of varying length, so that those for whom English is a necessity in their jobs can be taught (in the shortest possible time) by well-trained teachers, using the best methods available. Such a program has been organized for employees of the American Independent Oil Company of Kuwait (AMINOIL) for the coming summer. The capability to provide such a program does not exist in all the countries of the Arab World, but it does exist nearer home than England or the United States and the consumers at this conference have had the chance to meet those who can help them.

5) Teacher training

It might seem odd to include teacher training as one of the services that a TEFL center can provide for any consumer other than a ministry of education. However, during my pre-conference travels the scheme mentioned below met with enough positive response to warrant its inclusion in this paper.

Outlined below is a proposal which was prepared for the Ford Foundation and which was conceived, very much in the spirit of this conference, as a cooperative venture between the Center at AUB and a consumer institution.

The institution in question was running an English language program staffed entirely by American teachers brought out specially from the United States. Except for the Director of the program, none of the teachers held a professional qualification in TEFL. Every year, a few of the teachers left the program, sometimes in the middle of their contract, and others had to be hired at short notice. The morale of the teachers varied but was not particularly high since, apart from the attraction of high salaries, there was little intellectual stimulus in the program. The full cost of maintaining each teacher, including return fares from the United States, salaries and living allowances, was approximately $27,000 per year.

Since this situation is by no means unique, the proposal which was developed to meet it might be of interest to other consumers. It should be noted that this proposal incorporates all the services mentioned so far viz. consultancy, recruitment, materials selection and preparation and special English courses.

The scheme is based on two premises: a) that the consumer regards his English language program as "vital" enough to do something serious about it, and b) that he is willing to plan ahead for several years in the same way that he does for other aspects of his company's operations. The scheme involves the use of English

TEFL interns in furnishing trained teachers on a continuing basis and in providing continuing professional supervision from CELRT.

In summary, the steps of the scheme are as follows:

i. CELRT would recruit a number of M.A. candidates in TEFL from the Arab World, the U.S., or the U.K. (as specified by the consumer). These candidates would receive full-cost scholarships (tuition plus stipend) on condition that they would participate in the intern program. The M.A., under this arrangement, would take three years instead of two.

ii. The intern would spend the first twelve months at AUB completing most of his course work for the M.A. including an intensive course in Arabic. At this point he would have reached the level of the Teaching Diploma in TEFL.

iii. The intern would spend the next ten months teaching in the consumer's English program, after which he would return to AUB to complete his course work during the two-month summer program.

iv. He would then return to his job for a further year during which he would work on his Masters project. This project would involve preparing English language materials for the particular program in which he was working. In this he would be guided by his supervisor at AUB.

v. The following summer he would return to AUB, for two to three weeks, to defend his thesis and receive his degree.

At this point the company might wish either to re-hire him as a fully-paid employee to supervise lesser-trained teachers in the company's program, or to take on another intern.

There are advantages to the consumer, to the intern and to the TEFL profession in this scheme.

The consumer would have the services of CELRT as a consulting and supervisory body to insure that the quality of the program remained at a high and consistent level. He would have a regular supply of professionally trained teachers (who would already have experience since this is a pre-requisite for entry to the M.A. program), thus eliminating the problem of recruitment. The motivation of the interns would be high since their work would be not only a job but also a means of improving their academic qualifications. There would be built-in evaluation, and continuous improvement, of the special English materials as each intern worked on his project.

The cost of such a scheme would include two return air fares from Beirut to the place of work but no return fares from the U.S. or U.K. to Beirut. It would include the university fees for the M.A. program--approximately $1,000--and also a stipend for three years to cover the intern's living costs at AUB and the place of work. Although the cost of such a program would vary from country to country, it has been estimated that the three-year intern program would not cost more than a regular two-year contract on full pay. In fact, in the case of the particular institution mentioned above, the cost of the intern program was *half* the amount of the existing program.

The intern himself would benefit by receiving an M.A. in his chosen subject at no cost to himself for the three years of the program. If he is not an Arab he would also have the opportunity of being taught Arabic.

The TEFL profession in the Arab World would benefit by building up a reservoir of professionally qualified teachers with a vested interest in remaining in the Arab World. It would also have found a source of scholarship funding for the best graduate applicants, a source which would come from the area itself rather than from foreign agencies. Furthermore, it would have entered a field of interest (English for special purposes) which is not only intrinsically interesting but is also beneficial to the development of the area.

Most of the suggestions made in this paper as to the ways in which TEFL specialists can assist in "Adult Education for National Development" are either being implemented now or are possibilities within the capability of the area. However, they are being carried out on far too small a scale to make any perceptible impression when the region is viewed as a whole. For this reason I should like to end by making a plea for the establishment of a regional English language center in the Arab World, a center which is staffed sufficiently to be able to respond to the increasing number of requests for aid that are coming in, a focal point for the support that individual agencies now parcel out country by country. One hears, after every Ditchley conference, that Britain and the United States have become aware of the amount of duplication of effort which they put into English language teaching throughout the world, and that they are about to cooperate with each other. The establishment of a regional English language center in the Arab World--not unlike RELC in Singapore--would provide an excellent example of such cooperation and constitute a giant step towards raising the level of English both in the schools and universities and in the world of business and industry. The detailed planning of such a center will not be discussed here but the time for it is now ripe.

APPENDIX I

ADULT ENGLISH FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

BEIRUT CONFERENCE MAY 3 - 6 1971

CENTER FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE
RESEARCH AND TEACHING
AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF BEIRUT
BEIRUT, LEBANON

Director: N. J. O. BRATTON
Coordinator: N. READ-COLLINS
Cable Address: AMUNOB
Telephone: 340740 ext 2627

PROGRAM

Monday, May 3	THEME: EXPLORING THE NEEDS
8:30 - 9:30	Registration, West Hall, AUB
9:30 - 10:45	Meeting of proposed Association for the Teaching of English in the Middle East (ATEME)
11:00 - 11:15	Address of Welcome: Dr. Samuel Kirkwood President, American University of Beirut
	Chairman morning session: Mr. Atef Jubayli
11:15 - 12:00	A CONSUMER'S VIEWPOINT: THE NEED FOR SPECIAL ENGLISH PROGRAMS Mr. J. H. Mace
12:00 - 1:00	A SPECIALIST'S VIEWPOINT: ENGLISH FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES Professor P. D. Strevens RECENT RESEARCH IN SPECIAL ENGLISH Mr. M. Macmillan
1:00 - 2:00	Lunch
	Chairman afternoon session: Dr. Muhammad Hamzaoui
2:30 - 3:30	ENGLISH AS A CONSUMER PRODUCT Mr. David Mize
3:30 - 4:00	Coffee break

4:00 - 5:30	Panel discussion on the presentations Panel members: Dr. Albert Butros Mr. Fahd Al-Dughaither Dr. Hannah Morcos Hannah Dr. Abdelhalim Hammat Mr. James Jefferson Mr. Roger Sleeman
7:00 - 9:00	Reception at The Sands of Lebanon Hotel
Tuesday, May 4	THEME: EXPLORING THE PROBLEMS
	Chairman morning session: Dr. Raja T. Nasr
9:00 - 9:45	PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN ENGLISH LEARNING Dr. Levon Melikian
9:45 - 10:30	SOCIOLOGICAL FACTORS IN ENGLISH LEARNING IN THE REGION Professor Nicholas Read-Collins
10:30 - 11:00	Coffee break
11:00 - 1:00	Panel presentation: ACTUAL PROBLEMS THAT LEARNERS FACE Panel members: Mr. Mohammed Abu Talib Dr. Faze Larudee Mr. Hani Kheireddine Dr. Mohammed Maamoori Dr. Hamdi Qafisheh
1:00 - 2:30	Lunch
	Chairman afternoon session: Dr. Osman Farrag
2:30 - 3:15	APTITUDE AND SELECTION: ECONOMY IN MANPOWER Mr. Lewis Durr
3:15 - 4:00	Group discussion of above presentations
4:00 - 5:00	Group reports to Plenary Session
Wednesday, May 5	THEME: SURVEYING SOME SOLUTIONS
	Chairman morning session: Mr. Burhan Dajani
9:00 - 9:45	ENGLISH PROGRAM EVALUATION. WHAT MAKES A GOOD PROGRAM? Dr. Michael Dobbyn
9:45 - 10:45	Panel presentation of case studies: (1) PLANNING AN ENGLISH TEACHING PROGRAM:

THE TRIPOLI TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOL PROJECT
Dr. Faze Larudee

(2) ENGLISH FOR PETROLEUM - ARAMCO'S PROBLEMS, PAST AND PRESENT
Dr. Charles Johnson

(3) TRAINING FOR AN ENGLISH-MEDIA UNIVERSITY
Dr. Jean Praninskas

(4) A CHALLENGING PROJECT: THE COLLEGE OF PETROLEUM AND MINERALS (MINISTRY OF PETROLEUM), DHAHRAN, SAUDI ARABIA
Dr. Robert Sullivan

10:45 - 11:15 Coffee break

11:15 - 12:15 Plenary session discussion on the presentations

12:15 - 1:00 SURVEY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING RESOURCES AND THE KINDS OF SERVICES THEY CAN PROVIDE CONSUMERS
Dr. Neil Bratton

1:00 - 2:30 Lunch

Chairman afternoon session: Dr. Matta Akrawi

2:30 - 3:00 MIDDLE EAST ENGLISH TEACHING - PROSPECTS FOR CHANGE
Dr. Richard C. Yorkey

3:00 - 5:00 Group consultations between consumers and specialists

Thursday, May 6

9:00 Meeting of Association for the Teaching of English in the Middle East (ATEME)

Private consultations between individual consumers and specialists

1:00 CLOSING LUNCH

Farewell Address: H.E. The Minister of Education, Dr. Najib Abu Haidar

DISPERSAL

APPENDIX II

List of Participants and Observers

Specialist Resource Participants

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Dr. Neil Bratton
Director, CELRT

Dr. Suheil Bushrui
Chairman, Department of English

Dr. Michael Dobbyn
CELRT

Dr. Jean Praninskas
Director, University Orientation Program

Mr. Nicholas Read-Collins
CELRT

Miss May Uwaydah
CELRT

Dr. Richard Yorkey
CELRT

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